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Faculty of Education and Continuing Studies
School of Education

A Study of the Cognitive Styles and
Learning Preferences of Fire Service
Officers

by
Edwin L. Wilson

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Thesis Supervisor

Dr Richard Riding

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Abstract

This research examines the relationship between Cognitive Style and Learning Styles of senior officers in the Fire Service and their preferences for different training delivery methods. Data has been gathered from students attending courses at the Fire Service College, in particular those attending the Divisional Command Course (DCC), which is a personal and professional development course for officers aspiring to a senior role in the Fire Service.

Three data gathering instruments were used in the research, the Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA) (Riding, 1991), the Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ) (Honey & Mumford, 1982), and a questionnaire specifically designed to gather students' preference ratings across a range of 14 training delivery methods.

The research examines the psychological and educational derivations of models that underpin the CSA and LSQ instruments in order to help clarify the construct systems used to describe both cognitive and learning style; and to examine their relationships with other psychological constructs.

Further exploration of the relationships between cognitive and learning styles attempts to answer the question as to whether they have similar attributes and also whether the instruments have any practical predictive utility in predicting suitable delivery methodologies for training.

The data findings suggest that the officer students formed a homogeneous group with regard to cognitive style on the ðwholist-ðanalytic dimension, the tendency for bias towards the analytic end of the scale, but were evenly distributed on the ðverbaliser-ðimager dimension. The sample exhibited a more normal distribution of type with regard to learning style (using the LSQ), although there was a tendency for them to be more ðreflector-ðorientated than a standardized group in the general population.

The sample group showed preferences for certain delivery methods that encouraged interactive participation in the learning process but these did not appear to show any significant correlation with either cognitive style or learning style.

A study of the Cognitive Styles and Learning Preferences of Fire Service Officers

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CHAPTER 1

A study of the Cognitive Styles and Learning Preferences of Fire Service Officers

Introduction

Studying individual differences has been a personal interest dating from the time when I taught children of primary age. This interest has continued though it focuses now on the needs of adult learners, the complexities of their learning needs and how these are affected by their various educational backgrounds and learning experiences.

An interest in the programmed learning movement of the 1970s prompted some further study into the psychology of learning and its assessment. One particular aspect of this study examined the developmental aspects of cognitive growth in children's language and mathematical development and the qualitative changes in thinking.

This study of the psychology of learning and the educational aspects of cognitive psychology were then applied during a two year research project at the National Foundation for Educational Research in which the focus was on how teachers kept records of children's progress and what assessment structures and systems were used to provide the data. Schools throughout England and Wales were visited, or supplied data, for the survey. The report, Clift, Weiner and Wilson (1981), concluded with a series of recommendations derived from examples of good practice gathered during the survey.

One of the major points that emerged from the many interviews conducted with teachers was the diversity of methods used to record progress, ranging from extensive verbal reports to graphical and diagrammatical representations of data. Within individual schools, a record keeping system's success was due to the collaborative effort that had gone into producing the system. Discussion about a record system's purpose, and the educational structure that underpinned it, enabled teachers to internalize and conceptualize the assessment criteria used and thus to apply the criteria consistently. Whilst this ensured a measure of consistency within a particular school, there were few mechanisms in place to ensure reliable interpretation of the information when sent to another school.

The search for theoretical structures of cognitive development and objective measures of assessment in the field of education and training has been a continuing subject of interest since this earlier research. The search for objectivity is perhaps a vain pursuit since each assessment instrument contains some elements of subjectivity depending on the originator's field of focus and the research methods used for developing the instrument.

A chance piece of correspondence from the Assessment Research Unit at the School of Education, Birmingham University, opened up the opportunity to carry out some research using the recently developed Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA), (Riding, 1991), and to use this instrument with a defined vocational group, namely senior officers in the Fire Service.

The current research has provided an opportunity to look at some other issues relating

to instruments that sample cognitive and learning styles and their underpinning theories. One of the main objectives of gathering the data using the CSA was to provide a sample cognitive style profile of a particular vocational group to add to a growing number of samples from other groups (Riding and Rayner, 1998).

Accumulation of data from different samples will enable distinctive style profiles between the various vocational groups to be identified and to explore relationships between style type and the nature of the work carried out by each group.

A second objective of the research was to examine how individuals like to be taught, and how they like to learn. This aspect of the study looks at possible relationships between cognitive style (using the CSA) and learning style (using the LSQ – Learning Styles Questionnaire of Honey and Mumford, (1982)); and furthermore to look at possible links with students' preferences for types of course delivery.

My particular role on the staff at the Fire Service College, namely the Educational Development Tutor, involves providing advice to teaching staff, both uniformed and non-uniformed, about course development and methods of course delivery. The anticipated outcome of this research, therefore, is to inform the course development process, the College's Academic Advisory Board, and course development project teams.

Restructuring of progression courses will provide an opportunity for course development teams to look afresh at how courses can be delivered and how information about students' cognitive and learning style, their preferences for course delivery can be used to optimise the learning environment.

Context of the current research

The Fire Service College has been the principal training establishment for the education and training of officers in the UK Fire Service since it was set up during the Second World War. At the end of the war the National Fire Service, as it was then called, returned to local authority control. The College was then set up under section 23(1) of the Fire Services Act 1947 and in 1948 the College moved from its wartime site at Saltdean to Wotton House near Dorking.

Senior officer training was carried out at the Staff College at Wotton House near Dorking and focused on the command roles of officers. The more technical aspects of officer training were set up in 1967 on the site of the old RAF station at Moreton-in-Marsh, Gloucestershire, and was called the Fire Service Technical College. In 1981 the Staff College at Wotton House was closed and its operations were amalgamated with the expanded facilities at Moreton-in-Marsh under the revised title 'The Fire Service College'.

The College now provides operational command, fire prevention and specialist training for the junior, middle and senior ranks in the fire service. Industrial and business organisations, such as the petrochemical, aviation and off-shore oil industries undertake courses specifically designed for their needs. A number of international students attend courses at the College each year, many of whom benefit from using the 'hot-fire' training facilities at Moreton-in-Marsh to enhance their firefighting skills and competence in operational command.

In 1992 the College became a Trading Fund Agency within the Home Office. Since then, the financial running of the College has caused some concern; particularly with

regard to the costs of running training courses. Various financial factors have affected the College's functioning. For example, prior to agency status, the College received direct funding that was ring-fenced by the Home Office for courses at the Fire Service College. During this period local authority brigades did not have to fund their personnel to attend training at the College. Since the College became an agency, however, these ring-fenced funds have been delegated to local authority brigades. Although in Scotland, the Scottish Office still funds courses at the College directly rather than being paid for out of delegated funding. English and Welsh brigades with delegated budgets now have the freedom of choice as to whether they spend money on training, equipment or maintaining staffing levels during an ongoing climate of spending reductions by local authorities; this resulting from stricter standard spending assessments and government formula funding of local authorities.

The consequence of this has been that the take-up of courses has fallen, and the amount of income generated for running the Fire Service College, has dropped.

Pressures of another kind, namely from the Health and Safety Executive (HSE), have been forcing brigades to improve their levels of training and hence a greater need to call on the Fire Service College's training facilities. This has come about following HSE improvement notices being placed on particular brigades where emergency incidents have resulted in fatalities. To some extent the HSE powers have worked in the College's favour, but as the result of a great loss to personnel in the service.

Though such fatal tragedies in the fire service are relatively rare, the emergency work always carries an element of risk. Training officers to analyse possible risks at

incidents now forms an important part of the training programme demanded by authorities such as the HSE.

Another factor that has caused financial difficulty for the College has been the charging policy agreed with brigades. Since 1992, courses have in effect been sold at less than the cost price. Actual average costs of running a course work out at about £1200 per student per week. Brigades have been charged in the region of £650 to £750 per student/week. This arrangement has meant that the College has been losing in excess of £400 per student per week. Considering the number of students attending, between 200 and 500 per week, the shortfall is seen by the Home Office as unsustainable.

Consequently, the Home Office and the College have negotiated new financing arrangements. The Home Office is having to underwrite the difference but on a reducing basis over a period of five years after which further subsidy will cease. Therefore, under this agreement the College needs to reduce its course costs over this period.

During this period of financial constraint, discussions took place to examine the costs involved in delivering courses and to explore ways by which delivery of courses could be made more economical. Attempts at working out actual costings for the various component parts of course development, delivering courses and running practical exercises, etc. has not been an easy exercise, nor has it provided a completely accurate picture. Since the running of the College incurs a large fixed-cost component, it would not be easy to reduce the costs incurred. Running practical exercises is an

expensive component of many of the College's courses, because of the nature of hot fire training and the need to address significant health and safety issues. However, other aspects of course delivery could be examined with a view to looking at alternative delivery practices and technologies.

Cost reductions through using alternate delivery systems would not show an immediate improvement in the College's finances since there would be considerable development costs, for example, the costs of new infra-structure, and its maintenance, required for alternate forms of delivery would still form part of the present high level of fixed costs.

Since 1990, a series of studies have been commissioned to look afresh at the training needs of fire service officers. These studies include:

1. Report from the Sudbury Consultants 1990. This report looked at the roles within the fire service and the tasks required to fulfil these roles.
2. Report of the Training Strategy Group ó CFBAC-JTC, 1994. This is a comprehensive report that makes recommendations about the planning and development of training throughout the fire service.
3. Current course development research into Incident Command Decision-making ó Research carried out in conjunction with Aberdeen University.

4. The Standards Development Group, comprising a team of senior fire service personnel from the Home Office and UK Brigades, have been developing a complete role mapping of firefighting activities that can be used as a basis for planning training and as a basis for identifying training needs. The outcomes of this project will be used to redefine the training strategies, objectives and the delivery of training throughout the UK during the next decade.

In one particular brigade, some further thinking about command roles has resulted in a report entitled, 'West Yorkshire Fire Service Incident Command System' (1997).

This document quotes some research carried out on the processes of command decision-making, *The Psychology of Command Decision-making*, (Flin,1997) to underpin some aspects of its revised operational thinking.

Action at the College on these reports is still in progress and in some consideration of alternate methods of course delivery will be given during the redevelopment of courses to fulfil these training needs.

Current pattern of Progression Training in the UK and at the Fire Service College

The Fire Service College currently prepares fire service personnel for officer roles in the UK Fire Service. The training prepares them for various levels of command from the most junior level, Crew Command, to the most senior level, which would be a Chief Fire Officer for an English or Welsh brigade, or a Firemaster in a Scottish brigade.

Prior to attending courses at the College, students will already have had a considerable amount of basic training in their own brigades. Much of this training will have been conducted at an individual fire station or at the local brigade training centre.

Entry of prospective fire-fighters into the service is conditional on passing tests of physical fitness and strength as well as tests of proficiency in English and Mathematics and other essential skills. The latter assessments are necessary in order to determine that recruits reach a standard in these skills that will be needed to cope with the requirements of the job roles and future training. An earlier study found that traditional school and college academic qualifications were not necessarily found to be good indicators of potential officer material within the service (Willis-Lee, 1991). Despite these findings, students attending Fire Service College courses do receive a wide range of academic and practical education during their intensive period of study.

Those admitted into the service, as recruits, are trained in their local brigade for a period of up to two years and learn all the basic skills required to be a firefighter.

Much of the training curriculum is based on routines and procedures laid down in the core curriculum called the *Manuals of Firemanship* (comprising 16 volumes) issued by the Home Office. The next stage of progression involves studying for one of the progression examinations that are set and conducted by the Fire Services Examination Board. There are three main stages in the examination series:

1. Leading Firefighter,
2. Sub-officer,
3. Station Officer.

Once successful candidates have been accepted into the service and are undergoing progression training, some individuals do aspire to and succeed in gaining recognized qualifications at HNC, degree and post-degree levels.

However, before attending any courses at the Fire Service College, a firefighter should have at least successfully completed the Sub-officer's examination and also have been promoted to the level of Leading Firefighter. This stipulation usually ensures that students at the College have the requisite prior knowledge and experience on which to base their further studies.

Despite these entry qualifications, students at the College come with a variety of backgrounds both within the fire service and outside in other forms of employment. Some left school with a few CSEs or O-levels (precursors of the GCSE examinations) and have not done much in-depth study apart from that required for the

Fire Service Statutory Examinations. Others have continued their professional development and have gone on to study for diplomas and degrees. Within a course cohort, it is possible that the group will contain a wide range of educational backgrounds and therefore this poses a challenge to the tutors and instructors who try to cater for the learning needs of all the students in the group.

The training courses at the Fire Service College are also planned on a progression principle. Fire service personnel who aspire for promotion to senior roles, or who are identified by their brigade as potential officer material, are recommended to apply for places on the various progression courses at the Fire Service College beginning with the most junior course, the Crew Command Course, which is of three weeks duration.

The role of a Crew Commander is to manage a crew of firefighters on a fire appliance (fire-engine) and who is able to command an incident as a first attendance, i.e. being the first emergency personnel to arrive at an incident. The officer will be responsible for between three and five other firefighters at this stage. After satisfactory completion of the Crew Command course, and successful period of post-course experience back in brigade, the officer will then be eligible for the next stage, which will be to attend a Watch Command Course.

A Watch Commander is in charge of a group of firefighting crews at a fire station for the period of a 'watch' (a period or shift of eight hours). The Watch Commander may, after further successful experience, then aspire to progress towards the position of a Station Officer and have the overall responsibility for a fire station and its personnel.

Before taking up the Station Officer role, he/she will then be required to attend the Junior Officer's Advancement Course (JOA ó Command Level One).

In a restructuring of more senior courses, a new course is proposed (Command Level Two) that will prepare officers for the intermediate stages of command from Station Officer up to the level of Assistant and Divisional Officer. At this level, various specialist modules can be studied; these include courses such as the Fire Safety Officer course or the Hazardous Materials and Environmental Protection Adviser course.

Having attained the rank of Assistant Divisional Officer, an officer is then eligible to attend a Divisional Command Course (DCC ó Command Level Three). At this level, an officer will have reached a level of senior command and will have responsibility for a brigade division, which will cover a number of fire stations in a brigade area.

After further period of satisfactory service and responsibility, Divisional and Senior Divisional Officers can aspire to take on the most senior level of command at brigade headquarters. Those who wish to apply for these most senior roles of management must undergo an extensive and rigorous selection procedure of -Extended Interviewsø before gaining a place on the Brigade Command Course (BCC). These interviews are conducted by Home Office inspectors and follows an Assessment Centre format.

On completion of this course, officers at this level may apply for posts such as Assistant Chief Officer or Chief Fire Officer for a brigade. These positions are equivalent to a chief executive, or deputy, of a sizeable organization. It is within this framework and context of training and professional development that the current research has been conducted.

Summary

This chapter has described the stimulus and context in which the current research has been conducted. Some aspects of previous research in which the author has been involved have provided a basis for the current research study and a stimulus to pursue a more in-depth examination of individual differences and their effect on learning.

The choice of assessment instruments and the sample subjects used in the research has been based not on deliberate selection amongst the many that exist but on the opportunities available through chance correspondence and the particular role played by the researcher as a tutor at the Fire Service College.

A brief history of the Fire Service College has been outlined from the days of its establishment during the Second World War through its moves to Wotton House near Dorking and finally to its present site in Moreton-in-Marsh. The current problems experienced by the College are described resulting from the setting up of a Trading Fund Agency based on unsound financial principles. This situation has been a catalyst in the search for cutting the costs of delivering courses to the U.K. Fire Service.

In the search for solutions to the costs of delivering courses, some studies into the training needs of the fire service have been outlined. The studies have resulted in the production of role maps that describe in detail the demands made on personnel in the service and by implication what training they will require. The role analysis exercise has prompted the need to review the current structure of courses and to plan for the future.

The present pattern of progression training in the fire service is described, which has been based on the traditional rank structure of the service inherited from the military background. The rank structure, ranging from Leading Firefighter through to Brigade Commander, is associated with a training programme and a series of promotion examinations that are conducted centrally by a statutory body, the Fire Service Examinations Board.

This provides the background context in which the research has been carried out.

CHAPTER 2

Models of Learning

Overview

This chapter examines the theories of learning that form the background to both the current research and one of the instruments used for gathering data, the Learning Styles Questionnaire (Honey and Mumford, 1982).

The background theories and models of learning and teaching that have been proposed during this century are described in order to provide a context. Some of these theories have then been used as a basis for the model of 'experiential learning' proposed by Kolb, (1984).

As these theories originate from different schools of thought, Curry (1983) proposed the 'onion model' to describe the different levels of brain function. This model will be used as a 'metaphor' and a unifying structure for describing the different levels, or layers, of functioning involved in the learning process.

The levels include an outer layer, which involves the 'environmental interaction and perceptual' aspects of learning and cognitive functioning; the middle layer, which is considered to be an 'information processing' level; and the innermost layer, which comprises aspects of 'personality and neurological' functioning.

The models of learning covered in this chapter contain elements that are believed to function in the outer and middle layers of the 'onion' model. They therefore cover the

more accessible, i.e. the more observable aspects of learning. The theories derive from four main schools of thought: the 'behaviourists', 'gestaltists' and 'developmentalists' and those with an 'information processing' view. The latter view takes a broader perspective that includes responses to environmental and learning conditions as well intra-individual aspects.

The experiential learning model, proposed by Kolb (1984), brings together theories that emanate from these different views of educational psychology ranging from the interactionist views of Lewin (1951) to the developmental views of Jean Piaget (1929).

The 'onion' model is also used in the following chapter 3, in which aspects of personality, cognitive style, learning style and learning strategies are examined.

Models and theories of learning

The 'onion' model – Curry

Models of learning need to be seen within the context of psychological research that has been carried out during the last century and a half. Since the field of research into learning is wide, some unifying model, or device, is perhaps helpful in understanding the different aspects covered.

One of the major difficulties in carrying out this research has been the process of negotiating the 'construct minefield'. That is, how labels for naming such aspects as personality constructs and style variables appear to have a variety of meanings according to how researchers have used them in their own research; and thus how they relate to their own particular research methodology and their analysis of factors.

This is a point highlighted by Curry (1983) who proposed the 'onion model' as a means of developing a conceptual framework on which learning theories and constructs could be structured and to provide a means of explaining the '...bewildering confusion of definitions surrounding learning style conceptualization and the concomitant wide variation in the scale of behaviours claimed to be predicted by learning style conceptualizations.' (p.1)

In her research, Curry (1983) proposed an "empirically testable structure encompassing style concepts that have established psychometric standards." (p.1).

The basic concepts, and their definitions, used in the research are as follows:

1. ***Learning*** ó Intended learning (not unintended learning) is both a process and a product. *Process* ó adaptive, future focused, holistic, affecting an individual's cognitive, affective, social and moral volitional skills. *Product* ó observable, a relatively permanent change in behaviour, or potential behaviour. The process is observable in the improved ability of the individual to adapt to environmental stimuli.
2. ***Learning style*** ó An overused term (Curry avoids using this term other than to refer to a general area of interest concerning individual differences in cognitive approach and process of learning.)
3. ***Instructional preference*** ó An individual's choice of environment in which to learn, e.g. preference for lectures versus small group situations.
4. ***Information processing style*** ó An individual's intellectual approach to assimilating information following the classic information processing model (orienting, sensory loading, short-term memory, enhanced associations, coding system, long-term storage ó (processing generalizations followed by details or detailed examples followed by generalized principle.)
5. ***Cognitive personality style*** ó An underlying and relatively permanent personality level dimension. Looking for universals across many learning instances. Habitual time to closure as a measure of 'reflectivity ó impulsivity'.
6. ***Self-concept about learning*** – An individual's conscious perception about the way he/she learns best. This affects choice among learning alternatives.
7. ***Learning strategy*** – A translation-like mechanism by which the individual copes with the particular learning environment. An individual uses a learning strategy whether or not a particular learning environment matches his/her learning style to

'translate' information from the form supplied into a form meaningful to the individual.

8. ***Learning ability*** – This is an individual's potential performance given a defined setting and a defined task demand.

The 'onion' model itself provides a metaphor for the inner and outer workings of the mind and cognitive functioning and comprises three main areas, or 'layers';

Outermost layer ó *Instructional preference* ó This layer interacts with the learning environment and other external features such as; student expectations, teacher expectations, etc and it is the least stable area and the most easily influenced.

Middle layer ó *Information processing style* ó This layer influences the intellectual approach to the assimilation of information. It is at the intersection between fundamental personality level of individual differences and the environmentally offered learning format choices.

Innermost layer ó *Cognitive personality style* ó This layer is defined as the individual's approach to adapting and assimilating information. It does not interact directly with the environment and it is a relatively permanent personality dimension.

The aim of Curry's research was the belief that, "if developing styles into a usable set of constructs has potential for real economic effects by improving selection, training and continuing education of professionals." (1983, p.13)

However, this chapter will focus on models of learning; the aspect of style will be explored in chapter 3.

Models of learning

Despite efforts to apply cognitive science to research about instruction there do not appear to have been any radical improvements to the design of instruction and delivery methods (Ohlsson, 1990); òThere is little evidence that the application of our current cognitive theory can consistently produce instruction that radically increases the depth, breadth, or quality of the knowledge acquired by a large proportion of learners in a wide range of instructional topics.ö The current theories of cognition, he goes on to propose, are theories of action, rather than theories about how individuals develop fragmented pieces of knowledge into more complex concepts and principles. Existing theories provide an adequate basis for skills training but not for the development of concepts and principles that schools aim to teach, but, there are not adequate theories (as yet) about the nature of knowledge and how it is encoded.

Theories of learning and research into learning processes during the last 130 years have gone through various stages of focus since the time of the founding work of Wundt and James. The major ideas pervading the earlier part of this century have been 'social Darwinism', 'pragmatism' and 'metaphysical behaviourism' (McDonald, 1964). The latter two provide some relevant background to the current research; in particular the pragmatic and experimental views of Dewey (1910).

Four types of models of learning that have particular relevance to the current research are:

1. Behaviourism and conditioning ó which focuses on how situational and environmental conditions shape behaviour,

2. The Gestalt view ó which focuses on problem-solving insight and perceptual aspects of learning,
3. Cognitive development ó how the qualitative aspects of thinking and learning develop from childhood to adulthood,
4. Information processing view ó which encompasses areas of neuroscience and personality factors.

These schools of psychology, focus on the following main areas, (1) the behaviourist view takes a 'black box' approach ó understanding of brain functioning is based on observable inputs (stimuli) and outputs (response); (2) the cognitive approach ó understanding the mechanisms of processing, how these develop with age and experience. A third view, which focuses on information processing, is dealt with in more detail in chapter 3 in discussion about the nature of style.

Each of these areas focuses on different aspects of the learning process; the first describes the interaction between the individual and the learning environment, the second describes the sensory inputs and the outputs, the third describes the inner processing that follows the inputs and shapes the outputs. The first and second views can be considered as aspects of the 'outer layer' in the onion model. The third view fits into the middle layer of the model.

Behaviourism and conditioning

This aspect of cognitive psychology to a large extent focuses on the outward manifestations of the learning process. Some of the early research, notably Ebbinghaus (memory retention), paved the way for researchers to look at *associative*

learning, i.e. how the experiences of situations and events lead to learning.

The behaviourist approach to the psychology of learning, notably through the work of Pavlov (conditioned stimulus-response), Thorndike, Watson, Hull, Miller and Skinner, linked the classical conditioning and stimulus-response learning to explain many aspects of human learning. Much of this early research focused on animal behaviours, which were considered to be simple examples of learning and behaviour that were easy to observe in a controlled research environment. Later these findings were extrapolated in order to help explain the processes of human learning. This view of learning was based on the premise that the more complex human behaviours are made up of many simpler behaviours, many of which could be observed in animals. This view had its critics (Braginsky and Braginsky, 1974; and Martin, 1980) who considered that stimulus-response learning was but a narrow and limited form of learning, which in the absence of regular reinforcement would lead to extinction of such learned behaviours.

Miller (1957) proposed that a theory of learning should take account of four conditions: motivation, cue, response and reward. The development of programmed learning in the 1960s and 1970s was based on these views with its emphasis on the sequence, *stimulus-response-feedback-reinforcement*.

In terms of training delivery, the learner needs to be set to want to learn, i.e. internally motivated based on previous interest in the subject, plus being motivated by the new material being delivered. Secondly, students must be able to identify the cues within the learning materials or the lecturer's presentation. Thirdly, students need to act upon new learning and respond so that they transform, apply and use the

newly acquired knowledge.

The final principal condition is one of 'reward', which can be interpreted as achieving satisfaction in learning something new or developing a new skill. The element of reward is believed to be an important one in the learning process, particularly in behaviourist terms (e.g. the work of Tolman, Hull and Skinner), since reward motivates repeated performance; this could perhaps be viewed as the element in the 'learning cycle' that keeps up the learning momentum.

The general principles of programmed learning provided a structured approach to the delivery of material to be learnt. This involved breaking down the material into small steps, providing cues and opportunities for individual learners to make responses and to provide feedback about their performance. This process encouraged and motivated learners since feedback was contingent on performance. However, by the late 1970s, programmed learning in its originally conceived form fell out of favour. However, the structural discipline has remained as a basis for course design. The 'systems approach to training' retained elements of the programmed learning philosophy; a methodology that is widely used in training programmes for the armed services and also promulgated in Fire Service College training for trainers courses.

The Gestalt view

The Gestalt school, which included psychologists such as Wertheimer, Koffka and Köhler, took a different view and examined how individuals perceived phenomena, and how any regularities and patterns were perceived and recognized.

Problem-solving behaviours were also of interest to Gestalt psychologists who studied

productive thinking behaviours of both humans and animals. Researchers examined how individuals organized 'figure-ground' phenomena such as geometric illusions and how they were able to mentally complete incomplete patterns and therefore demonstrate some insight. The emphasis of the Gestalt school was on perceptual aspects rather than mental processes and they considered that in terms of any particular context 'the whole is greater than the sum of its parts'.

Cognitive developmental stages – Piaget, Bruner

A different aspect of research examined how thinking and reasoning developed during childhood through to adulthood. They looked particularly at the qualitative differences in the way people think. Principal amongst the researchers in this field was Jean Piaget.

Piaget carried out a great deal of observational research on children in order to identify particular characteristics of their thinking and reasoning processes and how they formed a series of stages in conceptual development. Piaget, when working with Binet and their development of intelligence tests, was puzzled by the varied types of answers given by some children. He studied groups of children's responses to particular problems. He also created particular problems for his research studies, which focused on the structures of knowledge and propositional logic (Piaget, 1953). He noticed that children below certain ages were unable to reason out problems that involved particular intellectual processes or demanded operational thought involving multiple comparisons (Piaget, 1929).

He went on to propose a developmental model of stages, which subsequently had a significant influence on primary education and teacher education from the 1960s onwards.

Peel (1971), also looked at the qualities of response to problem situations given by adolescents. The results of research indicated that during the adolescent years not all students attained the *formal-operations level* i.e. the ability to think in abstract terms and to engage in reasoning which involved going beyond the information given.

Research by Biggs and Collis (1982) suggested some modifications to Piaget's original theory by including the 'early formal' stage in the earlier group of stages covered by 'concrete operations'. They also proposed widening the age bands for each stage. One criticism of Piaget's model concerned the strict adherence to age related stages was that it would logically indicate that highly abstract subject matter (e.g. algebra) should not be taught before a child reaches about the age of 13 years.

However, Biggs and Collis go on to point out that it is the quality of individuals' responses that give an indication of their capabilities rather than the fact they have reached a certain age. '...a person's developmental stage might determine the upper limit of functioning, but a number of other reasons – such as motivation, prior knowledge of that particular task – would determine whether or not he always functions up to that level. Common observation would suggest that in most situations people function well below their potential maximum.' Biggs and Collis' main concern is that teachers should not over generalize their levels of expectation based on ages and stages but to analyse responses and attainment as indicators of the way one should plan forward for pupils.

A further thought may be given as to how adults' responses to problem tasks are worked through. For example, how many adults faced with a new problem will resort to using a strategy that involves trying by doing, or 'picturing' things in the mind, for example, rather than using a more abstract symbolic/verbal reasoning method? This research also suggests that there should be a more flexible approach to the linking of developmental stages to particular ages and a revision of the more rigid interpretation of Piaget's ages and stages.

Jerome Bruner's contribution to the developmental field has focused on the attainment of concepts and identifying the processes that make people more effective problem solvers (Bruner 1956, p.54). He examined how ideas, or concepts, are developed and how developmental stage influenced the mode of thinking.

The focus of study in this research, examined the way individuals encode experiences and how they are stored and used subsequently (Bruner 1966).

Bruner proposed that what individuals learn can be encoded *enactively*, *iconically*, or *symbolically*, i.e. knowledge is represented or remembered as actions, or as images or in an abstract code such as words, propositions, numbers etc. The terms *enactive* and *iconic* follow the Piagetian model closely.

These constructs represent ways of learning ranging from 'learning by doing' to 'manipulating ideas in the form of pictures as in a theoretical model' to the level of abstraction that is based on words or other symbols.

Further studies examined the processes in concept formation and how experiences are used to modify and sharpen conceptual meanings and he also goes on to examine the

qualitative differences in perception of phenomena.. These studies also looked at the cross-cultural experiences and their influences. (Bruner et al., 1966)

Information processing view

It was realised that some of the more complex human behaviours could not be adequately explained solely by *stimulus-response* learning and neither did the Gestaltist view provide an explanation of some other aspects of learning. Another view, the *information-processing* approach to cognition, gathered strength in the 1950s and 1960s and adopted the computer rather than animals as a more appropriate processing model.

Interest in information processing grew out of some earlier research studies that examined processing speed in muscle response experiments. 'Mental Chronometry', as the studies were known, involved measuring the time required to respond to various stimuli. This is one of the basic principles that underlies the operation of the Cognitive Styles Analysis instrument that will be discussed in the next chapter.

Studies of structural linguistics, notably Noam Chomsky, and the development of language provided a window into the mind and the development of knowledge.

The development of computers were seen as analogous to the symbolic processing of human problem solving. As a model, the computer appeared to address the problem of explaining the symbolic use of language in problem solving. However, later views of cognitive psychologists believe that even the computer is but a limited 'metaphor' of the human mind.

There appear to be two main concepts in cognitive psychology: *representation* and *process*. In examining some models of learning it is important to note the interplay of knowledge on processes, i.e. how knowledge supports the processes, and how the processes help to build up knowledge.

Theories of learning applied to models of learning

Theories of learning have mainly been developed from laboratory studies in which highly specific aspects of learning have been tested. From a practical point of view learning in the world at large and in classrooms and lecture rooms does not happen in quite the same way. Three models are described below that attempt to combine aspects from the theories described above into coherent models of learning.

Gagné – Conditions and types of learning

The various models and theories of learning, outlined above, are to some extent brought together in Gagné's 'Conditions of Learning' (1965, 1970, 1974, 1985). He developed a coherent model of hierarchies of intellectual skills that linked both the behaviourist and the information-processing schools of thought. In this model, the lowest levels of learning are based on *classical* and *operant conditioning*. The processes in the model are then developed through to intermediate levels that include *discrimination and concept learning*. At the higher and more complex processing level there is *rule learning* and *problem solving*. The following table (Table 2:1) describes the eight types of learning proposed by Gagné.

Table 2:1 Gagné's model of learning types

Type 1	Signal learning	A response to a signal a conditioned response. (e.g. Pavlov's experiments with animals.)
Type 2	Stimulus. Response (S. R)	Responses are gradually shaped through repeated action contingent with the stimulus. (e.g. Skinner's experiments)
Type 3	Chaining	Connecting together a sequence of two or more S. Rs.
Type 4	Verbal association	Linking verbal labels to a stimulus object either by direct association or through some secondary link as when learning vocabulary in a foreign language.
Type 5	Discrimination learning	Learning to discriminate visually, orally and aurally. As in selecting the appropriate use of \neq , \neq , \neq and \neq
Type 6	Concept learning	Ability to classify objects and situations in terms of particular attributes.
Type 7	Rule learning	A rule is a chain of two or more concepts that have a particular relationship to each other. Learning a rule from a verbal explanation is perceived to be much quicker than by discovery learning (Ausubel) providing that the base concepts are well established in the learner.
Type 8	Problem solving	Thinking out a new rule using previous experiences and learned rules in combination to meet a new situation.

With this hierarchical model and framework, it is possible to analyse tasks of complex behaviours and thus to develop a hierarchy of learning activities.

It is important to note that learning at levels 1 and 2 are very low levels of processing and Gagné considers that they do not have a significant role in school and adult learning. Formal school learning on the other hand mainly encompasses levels 4 to 8.

This particular model has been used during the 1970s as a structural framework for devising programmed learning materials. This model is perhaps now seen as representing the reproductive conception of knowledge and the quantitative outcome of learning (Lars-Owe Dahlgren, 1997), rather than a model focusing on the more qualitative aspects of learning.

Ausubel – Cognitive theory of meaningful verbal learning.

Ausubel in his major discussion and review of educational psychology (Ausubel, 1968), criticised many of the theories and models of learning developed during the earlier part of the 20th century. His main criticism focused on the degree of relevance of models of learning that had been developed in laboratory situations to the types of learning that take place in classrooms in schools and other educational establishments.

Some models of teaching have reportedly been extrapolated from these theories and models of learning (Gage, 1964). Ausubel also cites the converse argument, which has also been criticized by Smith (1960), that theories of learning can be derived from theories of teaching and instruction. Smith (1960, op.cit) uses the quote, 'if a child has not learned, the teacher has not taught', as an example to imply that learning and teaching are closely interlinked. However, Smith goes on to suggest that learning can take place in the absence of teaching and therefore the two are not always so closely related.

Ausubel believes that the role of educational psychology is to address the problems faced by the classroom teacher, who must:

‘ generate interest in subject matter, inspire commitment to learning, motivate pupils, and help induce realistic aspirations for educational achievement. He must decide what is important for pupils to learn, ascertain what learnings they are ready for, pace instruction properly, and decide on the appropriate size and difficulty of learning tasks. He is expected to organize subject matter expeditiously, present materials clearly, simplify learning tasks at initial stages of mastery, and integrate current and past learnings. It is his responsibility to arrange practice schedules and reviews, to offer confirmation, clarification, and correction, to ask critical questions, to provide suitable rewards, to evaluate learning and development, and, where feasible, to promote discovery learning and problem-solving ability. Finally, since he is concerned with teaching groups of students in a social environment, he must grapple with problems of group instruction, individualization, communication and discipline.’

(Ausubel, 1968, p.9)

In parallel to Gagné's 'Conditions of Learning' model, Ausubel identifies some different types of learning that take place in classrooms. As pointed out earlier, the lower order types of learning in the Gagné model have little relevance in the classroom situation. Ausubel, however, proposes that the 'higher-order' categories of learning fall into two main groups, (1) *reception* and *discovery learning*, (2) *rote* and *meaningful learning*.

In the former group, the differences lie in the degree to which material is presented or discovered. In the second group, the differences lie in the degree to which material is learned by rote or is meaningful. Ausubel then suggests that these two groupings form independent dimensions of learning and goes on to dispel the commonly held view that all reception learning is rote, and all discovery learning is meaningful. He suggests examples where material that is presented can be learned meaningfully, and that there are occasions when problem-solving and discovery techniques can be rote learned. The major influence determining the degree to which learning is rote or meaningful depends upon the conditions under which the learning takes place.

Ausubel's model of learning, apart from being based on the two dimensions described above, is also founded on some basic principles that fall into two broad areas: (1) *intrapersonal* i.e. factors that lie within the person, and (2) *situational* i.e. the external conditions under which learning takes place. The following table (Table 2:2) sets out the factors included in these two broad areas.

Table 2:2 Factors that affect learning

Intrapersonal	Situational
Cognitive structure	Practice
Developmental readiness	Instructional materials
Intellectual ability	Group and social factors
Motivational and attitudinal factors	Characteristics of the teacher
Personality factors	

Descriptors for these factors will assist in building up an understanding of Ausubel's model, firstly the intrapersonal factors

Cognitive structure ó the substantive and organizational properties of previously acquired knowledge that are relevant for the assimilation of another learning task in the same subject field.

Developmental readiness ó the learner's stage of intellectual development, intellectual capacities and modes of intellectual functioning characteristic of that stage.

Intellectual ability ó the learner's relative level of general intelligence, verbal, quantitative and problem-solving abilities.

Motivational and attitudinal factors ó desire for knowledge, need for achievement, ego-involvement (interest), alertness, attentiveness level, persistence and level of effort.

Personality factors ó personal adjustment, level of anxiety, level of motivation and other individual differences.

The situational factors in the model are as follows:

Practice ó the frequency, distribution, method and general conditions including feedback or knowledge of results.

Instructional materials ó in terms of the amount, difficulty level, step size, the underlying logic, sequence and pacing, and the use of instructional aids.

Group and social factors ó classroom climate, co-operation and competition, social-class stratification, cultural deprivation, and racial segregation.

Characteristics of the teacher ó his/her cognitive abilities, knowledge of the subject matter, pedagogic competence, personality and behaviour.

These two groups of factors comprise the ‘relatively objective intellectual’ and the ‘subjective and interpersonal’ determinants of learning.

Ausubel refers to the aspect of ‘cognitive style’ as the ‘self-consistent and enduring individual differences in cognitive organization and functioning,’ (Ausubel 1968, p.170). He also attributes these differences of style to the different human behaviours such as information-storing and processing mechanisms, which will be described below.

The following cognitive processing strategies were identified: (Ausubel, op.cit. p.171)

- intolerance for ambiguity (tendency towards premature closure);
- intolerance for unrealistic experience; levelling ó sharpening; need for simplification (skeletonizing, rationalizing);
- degree of cognitive differentiation;
- explication and importing detail in memory (embroidery);

- vividness of memory; long-term versus short-term memory;
- memory for particular kinds and sense modalities of experience;
- constriction or flexibility in problem-solving;
- preference for cognitive complexity or simplicity, for widely known or little known information; preference for broad or narrow categorization.

In reporting studies of children's learning, Ausubel states that those with analytic tendencies tend to be more reflective and are prepared to consider alternative categorization/classification possibilities. These children tend to be less distractible and hyperactive than those who are conceptually impulsive.

Ausubel states that there is a general tendency for individuals to simplify the representations and storage of information in cognitive structure in order to reduce cognitive strain. He goes on to report the qualitative differences between *levellers* and *sharpeners* in this respect. Whereas the latter can recall anecdotal detail more readily, the former tend to remember the substantive core of meaning. The process of *obliterative assimilation* appears to be somewhat greater in levellers than sharpeners, this is due to the greater fall-off rate at which details can be recalled.

At the time of writing (1968), Ausubel could find little evidence of the existence of *cognitive styles*. He did state that there was consistent evidence of differences between individuals in the way they organized the storage and processing of information. He suggested that there were three main aspects:

Progressive differentiation is the organizing of new information within an existing and expanding hierarchical structure; the structure containing conceptual ideas of relatively greater/lesser levels of inclusion.

Cognitive reductionism or simplification is the tendency to assimilate the general conceptual ideas but to lose, or be unable to recall, the detail. This process reduces cognitive strain.

Achieving internal consistency and congruence of ideas is the process of selectively forgetting or misunderstanding details, or new ideas, which do not fit in with the existing meanings within the cognitive structure.

From Ausubel's study of the research in this area, he suggests that one aspect of cognitive style, namely the wholist-analytic dimension (or, -levelers-sharpeners, as Holzman and Klein (1954)), there appear to be qualitative differences in the way individuals store information and incorporate new information within the cognitive structure. He proposes the need for *organizers*, rather than overviews, to prepare learners for receiving new learning material.

Organizers need to be written at a different conceptual level from overviews, which merely summarise the main conceptual ideas to be covered. Overviews serve different functions for wholists, as opposed to their use by analytics, but in both cases serve the need to review the previously learned concepts for new learning to be anchored to.

For wholists, organizers will be required to review, and raise to consciousness, some of the more detailed concepts required to learn new material. Whereas for analytics, organizers may be required not only to identify which concepts will be required but also to provide an overall conceptual map, or structure, of the area to be covered.

The major theories of learning that have been examined so far provide ideas about the processes that the mind uses in building up knowledge. The model of learning described in the next part of the chapter is more pragmatic and to a large extent

describes the processes used in acquiring knowledge. The model described below utilizes several of the aspects of learning theories outlined above in formulating a process model of learning.

Model of Experiential Learning

The model of 'experiential learning' takes a fresh look at the process of learning. David Kolb's model of 'experiential learning' (1984) arose out of a perceived need to question existing practices in education and training. He suggested that the following aspects should be examined:

- A need to 'rectify' conceptions about learning and the learning process.
- The learning process has become distorted firstly through 'rationalism' and latterly through 'behaviourism'
- We have lost touch with our own experience as the source of personal learning and development, and in the process, lost that experiential centredness necessary to counterbalance the loss of 'scientific' centredness.
- Emphasis on lifelong learning 'to replace 'front-loaded' education (i.e. education for the young <21) because by the time the products are in employment, the knowledge may be obsolete or out of date.

In his proposed model, Kolb (1984) defines two dimensions each of which is bounded by a contrasting polar construct namely, (1) *concrete experience–abstract conceptualization*, and (2) *active experimentation–reflective observation*. He suggests that the process of learning involves interactions and transactions between these four construct types.

The following quotation provides a description of the interactions and dependencies

involved in his view of the learning process.

To begin with, notice that the abstract/concrete dialectic is one of *prehension*, representing two different and opposed processes of grasping or taking hold of experience in the world – either through reliance on conceptual interpretation and symbolic representation, a process I will call *comprehension*, or through reliance on the tangible, felt qualities of immediate experience, what I will call *apprehension*. The active/reflective dialectic, on the other hand, is one of transformation, representing two opposed ways of transforming that grasp or –figurative representation– of experience – either through internal reflection, a process I will call –intention– or active external manipulation of the external world, here called –extension–. These two dimensions of learning – prehension and transformation – correspond directly to Piaget’s figurative and operative aspects of thought. (Kolb, 1984, p.41)

The origins of the “Experiential Learning” model

Kolb utilizes the work of some educational philosophers to provide a rationale and theoretical basis for his model of experiential learning. Some of the main theories have been described above and specific aspects, as applied to the 'experiential learning' model, are elaborated in this section.

In describing his model, Kolb uses the dichotomies, –traditional v progressive– (listed below) outlined by Dewey (1938) as a basis for reviewing the purposes of education and training and goes on to advocate a shift of emphasis from the controlling influences of the education provider towards the lifelong instrumental value of education for the learner.

Kolb then focuses on the process of learning itself and how Lewin outlines the sequence learners generally follow in the process of action research and how they make sense of new experiences and transform them into new learning. Kolb translates the four key points contained in the Lewinian model into a learning cycle process.

The model Kolb proposes starts with the concrete experience and how this forms the basis for observation and reflection. Generalization of these reflections then combine to form abstract conceptualizations, which are then tested out through further experimentation. The latter then provides the next set of concrete experiences and so the cycle continues.

The third aspect Kolb draws in to develop his model of experiential learning is the developmental dimension such as that proposed by Piaget in which the qualitative aspects of thinking are developed. Some of the theories on which his model is based have been outlined above.

The three main theories that Kolb draws on:

1. John Dewey ó Model of experiential learning,
 2. Kurt Lewin ó The Lewinian model of action research and laboratory training,
 3. Jean Piaget ó Model of learning and cognitive development,
- are outlined below.

1. John Dewey – Model of Experiential Learning

Dewey proposes the need for education to address the following dichotomies:

To imposition from above	is opposed to	Expression and cultivation of individuality.
To external discipline	is opposed to	Free activity.
To learning from texts and teachers	is opposed to	Learning from experience.
To acquisition of isolated skills and techniques by drill	is opposed to	Acquisition of them as means of attaining ends.
To preparation for a more or less remote future	is opposed to	Making the most of the opportunities of present life.
To static aims and materials	is opposed to	Acquaintance with a changing world.

“... fundamental unity of the newer philosophy is found in the idea that there is an intimate and necessary relation between the processes of actual experience and education.”

Dewey visualizes how learning transforms the impulses, feelings and desires of concrete experience into higher-order purposeful action. This process “involves observation of surrounding conditions, knowledge of what has happened in the past in similar conditions, and judgement that puts together what has been observed and what is recalled to see what they signify.” (Dewey, 1938, p.69)

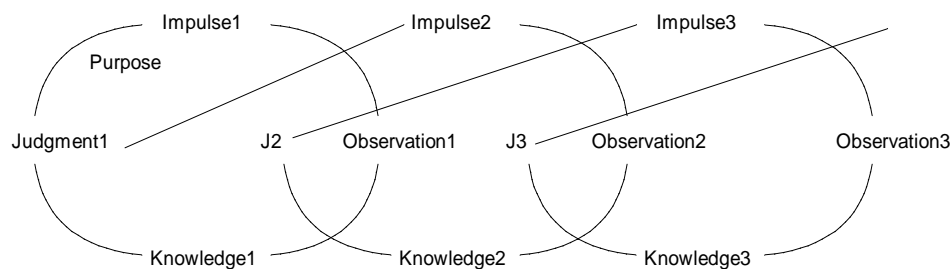


Figure 2:1 The Dewey Model

Learning is “... a dialectic process integrating experience and concepts, observations and action. The impulse of experience gives ideas their moving force, and ideas give direction to impulse. Postponement of immediate action is essential for observation and judgement to intervene, and action is essential for achievement of purpose. It is through the integration of these opposing but symbiotically related processes that sophisticated, mature purpose develops from blind impulse.” (Kolb, 1984, p.22)

2. Kurt Lewin – Lewinian model of action research and laboratory training

Lewin was a social psychologist with interests in organizational behaviour. One of his major concerns was linking theory and practice. The model of experiential learning grew out of Lewin’s study of group dynamics in T-groups (Training Groups) (Lewin 1951). The emphasis of the model is on Action Research carried out in his Laboratory

Training Method. His work involved looking at, and reflecting on, planned changed interventions in small groups and large complex organizations.

“A discovery was made that learning is best facilitated in an environment where there is a dialectic tension and conflict between immediate concrete experience and analytical detachment. By bringing together the immediate experiences of trainees and the conceptual models of the staff in an open atmosphere where inputs from each perspective could challenge and stimulate the other, a learning environment occurred with remarkable vitality and creativity.” (Kolb, 1984, p.9)

Lewin described action research as a spiral of steps in which there were four stages in each step:

1. Planning
2. Acting
3. Observing
4. Reflecting

Each step builds on the previous turn in the spiral to produce a series of planning episodes. At each review there is a possible need to revise plans as a result of reflecting on previous activity.

The action research model therefore provides a basis for action learning, or experiential learning. Kolb interprets this cycle of learning processes in the following diagram (Figure 2:2).

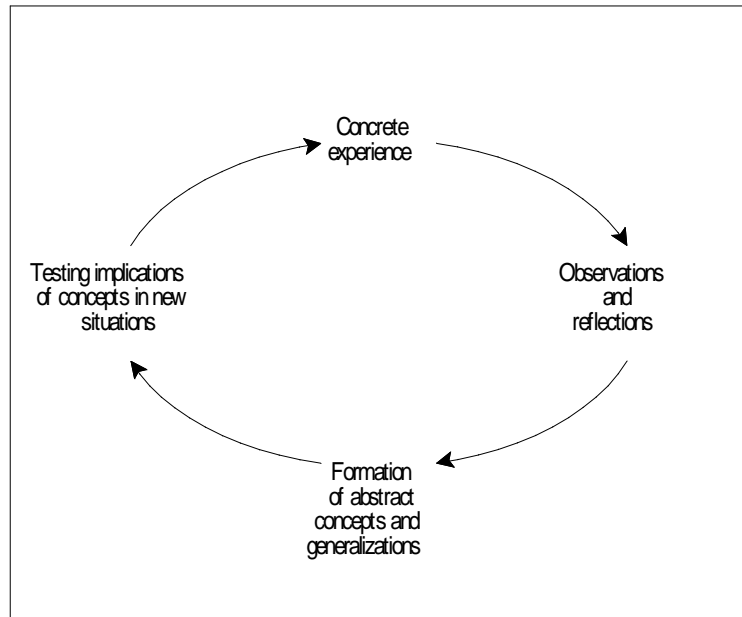


Figure 2 : 2 The Lewinian Model

There are two main stages within Kolb's interpretation of the Lewinian Learning Model:

1. The *here-and-now* concrete experience to validate and abstract concepts.
2. The *feedback processes* to enable evaluation of action and to correct imbalance between observation and action.

Lewin and his followers believed that much individual and organizational ineffectiveness could be traced ultimately to a lack of feedback processes. The ineffectiveness results from an imbalance between observation and action – either from a tendency for individuals and organizations to emphasize decision and action at the expense of information gathering, or from a tendency to become bogged down by data collection and analysis. (Kolb, 1984, p.22)

3. Jean Piaget – Piaget's model of Learning and Cognitive Development

Piaget's interest in cognitive development has been outlined above, but Kolb refers to Piaget's developmental research in the formulation of the theory of experiential learning.

Piaget's theory describes how intelligence is shaped by experience. Intelligence is not an innate internal characteristic of the individual but arises as a product of the interaction between the person and his or her environment. For Piaget, action is the key.

Abstractions, and abstract reasoning, develop out of exploring and coping with the concrete environment. The growing child's system of knowing changes qualitatively in successively identifiable stages, moving from an *enactive* stage, where knowledge is represented in concrete actions and is not separable from the actions that spawn it, to an *ikonic* stage, where knowledge is represented in images that have an increasingly autonomous status from the experiences they represent, to stages of *concrete* and *formal operations*, where knowledge is represented in symbolic terms, symbols capable of being manipulated internally with complete independence from experiential reality.

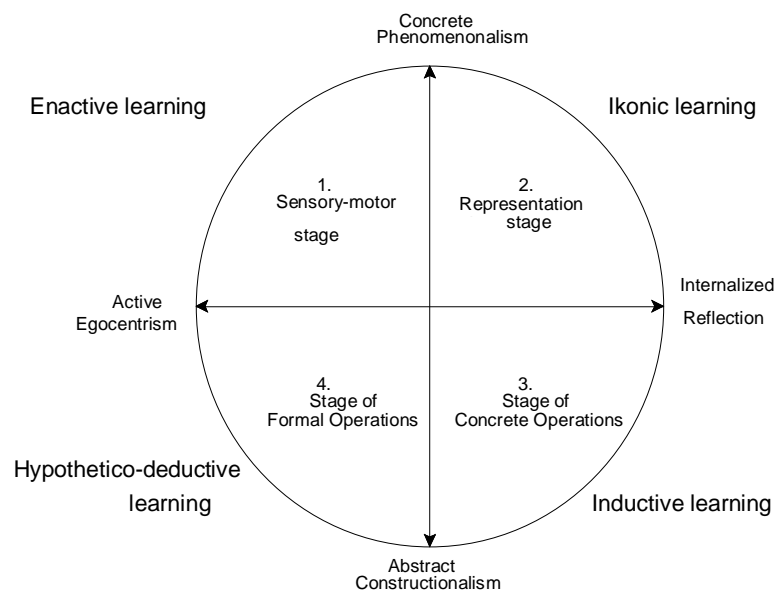


Figure 2:3 The Piagetian Model

Other models of learning referred to

In bringing together other models of learning, Kolb refers to some additional aspects of the following models of learning. Particular aspects of theories referred to earlier are included for their relevance to the model of 'experiential learning' and the current research.

Jerome Bruner

Bruner continued to apply Piagetian theory to the field of instructional design ó *Theory of Instruction* ó by suggesting that òany idea or problem or body of knowledge can be presented in a form simple enough so that any particular learner can understand it.ö (Bruner, 1964). He proposed that knowledge may be characterized in three ways, each affecting the ability of any learner to master it: (a) *the mode of representation* in which it is put, (b) its economy, and (c) its effective power. òMode, economy and power vary in appropriateness to different ages, to different òstylesö among learners, and to the differences between subject matters.ö *Representation* ó Bruner suggests that knowledge can be represented in three ways: (a) by a set of actions ó *enactive representation*, (b) by a set of images or graphics that stand for a concept without defining it fully ó *ikonic representation*, and (c) by a set of logical propositions drawn from a symbolic system that is governed by rules or laws for forming and transforming propositions ó *symbolic representation*.

Economy ó refers to the amount of information that must be held in mind and processed to achieve comprehension.

Effective power ó refers to the generative value of a set of learned propositions. òThe

effective power within a particular learner's grasp is what one seeks to discover by close analysis of how he is going about his task of learning.

Lawrence Kohlberg

Kohlberg extended the developmental approach of Piaget through to adolescence and adulthood by looking particularly at moral development. The initial level, ÷...is preconventional morality: with a first stage of acting to avoid punishment, then a second stage based on mutual benefit. The second level is conventional morality: the first stage of this involves conforming to the norms of the peer group; whilst the second stage is a mechanical conformity to the rules / laws of society. The culminating level is postconventional morality. In the first stage of this an adult would negotiate terms with significant others; whilst in the second and final phases she could act independently of the norms if she thought it was right to do so.ö (Sutherland, 1998)

William Perry

Perry noticed that students (male undergraduates at Harvard ó late 1950s to 1960s) develop their thinking whilst at university and college and go through the following stages, or 'positions'ó *absolutist, authority-centred, right-wrong* views of knowledge (in their early college year), through stages of *extreme relativism* in their later college years, and finally to a higher stage of personal commitment (cf. Krathwohl (1964) ó affective domain level 5). The 'positions'ö taken by students are not permanent since observations show that regression takes place in the face of new, unfamiliar, intimidating situations. (Perry, 1970)

Other theories contributing to the Experiential Learning model

Kolb describes these theories as falling basically into two strands:

1. *The therapeutic psychologies* ó Carl Jung, Erik Erikson, Carl Rogers (client-centred therapy), Fritz Perlsø (Gestalt therapy), Abraham Maslow (Self-actualization psychology).

öThis school of thought brings two important dimensions to experiential learning. First is the concept of *adaptation*, which gives a central role to affective experience. The notion that healthy adaptation requires the effective integration of cognitive and affective processes is of course central to the practice of nearly all forms of psychotherapy.

öThe second contribution of the therapeutic psychologies is the conception of socioemotional development throughout the life cycle.ö

Erikson, Rogers, and Maslow's theories of development provide a holistic framework for describing the adult developmental process and the learning challenge it poses.

In Jung's theory ó concepts of psychological types representing different modes of adapting to the world, and his developmental theory of *individuation* (personal fulfilment) are seen to be most useful for understanding learning from experience. In the models of psychological factors, Jung proposes three psychological dimensions ó *introversion–extraversion, thinking–feeling and sensation–intuition*. The link between psychological type and learning preferences is described in the findings of some research¹:

öIn school, ninth-grade students who are extraverts prefer active learning styles such as peer teaching, projects, and simulations, whereas introverts prefer reflective learning styles, including lectures, audiovisual presentations, and learning alone. also.... students who are Judging types

¹ In S.C. Cloninger, (Reference: Fourqurean, J.M., Meisgeier, C. & Swank, P. (1990) refers to the link between learning style and Jungian psychological types: a finding of two bi-polar preference dimensions. (Journal of Experimental Education, 58, p.225. 237)

prefer to learn in more structured and quiet environments and through independent study, while Perception type students prefer unstructured, noisy environments and tactile learning

2. *The radical educators*

The main view of the radical educators is that education is primarily an agency of social control.

Ivan Illich (*De-schooling Society* 1971). Illich proposed the idea that,

“The deschooling of society implies a recognition of the two-faced nature of learning. An insistence on drill skill alone could be a disaster; equal emphasis must be placed on other kinds of learning. But, if schools are the wrong places for learning a skill, they are even worse places for getting an education. School does both tasks badly, partly because it does not distinguish between them. School is inefficient in skill instruction especially because it is curricular. In most schools a programme which is meant to improve one skill is chained to another irrelevant task.”

Paulo Friere (1973) advocated the development of “critical consciousness”, the active exploration of the personal, experiential meaning of abstract concepts through dialogue among equals.

“Knowledge only emerges through invention and re-invention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry men pursue in the world, and with each other.”

Education, he argues, is not a banking system where the teacher “deposits” knowledge and the learner is a depository. This view of education restricts the learner to the role of a receiver of information, which is then filed and stored. This view does not account for such things as creativity and the transformation of knowledge. Friere also believed that people could learn to read more quickly if the reading material was “politically” relevant to the learners.

Summary

This chapter has given some detail of the background theories and models of learning that have attempted to translate theory into practice. Specific aspects of these theories have been highlighted because of their support in the development of a model of experiential learning. These theories and models have ranged from the narrow behaviourist views to the broader ranging developmental and psycho-social views.

The theories and models described are focused on the processes that mainly lie in the outer layer of the 'onion' model. In essence, the models are based on the aspects of observable learned behaviour.

The models described include those emanating from the behaviourist and conditioning researchers who consider learning as being influenced by external factors. The second school of thought, the Gestaltists, believe that learning is largely influenced by perception and the development of insight. Thirdly, there is the developmental viewpoint, which explains the growth of thinking and reasoning powers according to a set of developmental stages.

Two models that take a more eclectic view, Gagné and Ausubel, develop their theories of learning by combining elements from the more discrete ones previously described.

The theories and models used by Kolb in the development of his 'experiential learning' model have been described in greater detail since they will be revisited in chapter 3, in which the concept of learning style will be explored.

The next chapter examines the subject of cognitive style, learning style and strategies.

This leads on to how these models are brought together in Kolb's model of experiential learning and the development of research into cognitive and learning style.

CHAPTER 3

Cognitive style, learning style and learning strategies

Overview

This chapter is in three main sections and will review some of the psychological research backgrounds and studies of cognitive styles and learning styles. In particular, it will include research studies that underpin the instruments used during this research.

The first section of the chapter outlines the general nature of cognitive style and is illustrated by some of the cognition-centred background theories and models. The second section will examine aspects of personality-centred and neuro-psychological aspects of style. The third section, will look at activity-centred models of learning style and strategy that link the interface between both internal and external factors of cognitive processing, and which influence how learners learn.

The fourth section brings these different perspectives together and describes two style assessment instruments used to gather data for this research, namely the 'Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ ó Honey and Mumford, 1982) and the 'Cognitive Styles Analysis' (CSA ó Riding, 1990).

What is cognitive style?

We are continually bombarded by a variety of stimuli from our environment during our waking lives. We probably attend to only a small range of stimuli at any one time but try to make sense of it through a coding process of categorization. "Cognitive style theorists consider that there is an identifiable consistency about the way in which each of us carries out this coding process." (Fontana, 1981). The theorists suggest that we do not drastically change our methods of solving problems, whether they be academic or social, and therefore cognitive style is considered as an integral part of our personality.

Studies of cognitive style have consequently been seen as somewhat conceptually problematical. Research in the field has been criticised for lacking the rigour and clarity of research carried out in other areas of psychology such as personality and ability (Teidemann, 1989; Carroll, 1993; Furnham, 1995). Riding, Rayner and Banner, (1999) point to four key areas in which research design and conceptual flaws have led to the scepticism surrounding cognitive style research.

The criticisms are that research workers have:

- "generated a large number and bewildering array of labels purporting to being different styles,
- have used ineffective and questionable assessment methods,
- not made a clear distinction between style and other constructs such as intelligence and personality, and
- been slow to demonstrate the practical utility of style." (Riding, *et al.* 1999).

The large number of construct labels used in this field of research also leads to a great deal of conceptual confusion since the same labels have been used for indicating behaviour that are qualitatively different, and conversely similar behaviours have been given different labels.

In answering the question "what is style?" there is a need to clarify the differences between what is 'style' and what is 'ability'. Three characteristics identified by Guilford (1980) as clarifying the differences are:

- Ability is more concerned with *level* of performance, while style focuses on the *manner* of performance.
- Ability is *unipolar*, whilst style is *bipolar*.
- Ability has values attached to it such that one end of an ability dimension is valued and the other is not, while for a style dimension neither end is considered better overall.

Riding (1999) comments that, "both style and ability may affect performance on a given task. The basic distinction between them is that performance on all tasks will improve as ability increases, whereas the effect of style on performance for an individual will be either positive or negative depending on the nature of the task."

The problem of assessing style without a clear idea about what it is can be a source of philosophical problems for researchers. The various studies into cognitive style using the Cognitive Styles Analysis (Riding, 1990), for example, appear to show low correlations with instruments that assess personality (Riding and Wigley, (1997), and ability ó using the British Abilities Scale ó (Riding and Pearson, 1994; Riding and

Agrell, 1997). The problem for the researcher using these instruments is to examine how much of the behaviours are accounted for by the major factors, such as personality and/or ability factors. Therefore, could one of the residual factors be that of 'style', perhaps?

In other words, is it easier to define style in terms of what it is not? This would seem to be a psychological equivalent of the study of 'black holes' in astro-physics.

Research studies into style have appeared since about the 1940s onwards although some historic descriptions can be traced back to the ancient Greeks (Vernon, 1973).

A more recent analysis of research into style (Riding and Rayner, 1998) looks in more detail at the varieties of style research, its assessment and an examination of the plethora of labels used name the style constructs.

Style theories appear to have developed through studies into four areas of psychology:

1. perception
2. cognitive controls and cognitive process
3. mental imagery
4. personality constructs

In the first area, the whole range of 'sensory systems' and how aspects of sensory inputs of sight, hearing, touch, and smell are perceived. The Gestalt 'school' referred to in chapter 2 focused particularly on perceptual aspects of information processing; the work of Witkin, et al. (1962), and later collaborative work, looked into developing the idea of a construct 'field-dependent ó field-independent'.

The second aspect of style relates to how individuals adapt to their environment and

develop attitudes to how they perceive, structure and think, and ways to control these mechanisms; this perspective introduces constructs such as 'flexible control' or 'constricted' 'automatization v restructuring'.

The third aspect of style, 'mental imagery', is based on how individuals represent ideas in their minds; in verbal forms of thought or in images or some kind of visual thought processes akin to a kind of mental video.

The fourth aspect of style, personality constructs, considers how characteristics of personality influence style. For example, the Jungian based Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (1978) has been used to identify personality types, and in their description of types of personality Myers and Myers (1980) describe a series of learning styles relating to 'type'.

Sternberg (1997) in collaboration with Grigorenko have classified style research and theories into three main areas; (1) cognition-centred, (2) personality-centred, and (3) action-centred, as shown in Table 3:1. The three aspects of cognitive style listed earlier – perception, cognitive control and processes, and mental imagery – fall into the 'cognition-centred' category. The 'personality constructs' area falls into the 'personality-centred' category.

This general classification will be used as a structure for the remainder of this chapter on models and theories of cognitive style and learning styles.

Table 3:1 Theories of cognitive style

Cognition-centred	Field-dependenceóIndependence	The degree to which individuals are dependent on the structure of the prevailing visual field or not.
	Equivalence range	Broad equivalence range ó'levelling' (seeing things as similar), versus a narrow equivalence range 'sharpeners' (seeing things as different)
	Category width	The degree to which individuals are able to estimate widths, size and distance consistently, or not.
	ImpulsivityóReflectivity	The degree to which individuals complete tasks speedily but are tolerant of making frequent errors, as opposed to those who work more slowly but accurately.
	Compartmentalization	The extent to which individuals categorize or organize ideas or things into discrete, labelled 'boxes'.
Personality-Centred Styles	Psychological Types	Theory derives from Jung's work and developed by Myers and Myers in their Myers-Briggs Type indicator instrument.
	Energic Theory of Mind Styles	People differ in the ways they organize space and time. Concepts include: Concreteóabstract, sequentialórandom. (Gregorc, 1982)
Activity. Centred Styles	Learning Styles	Kolb, 'convergingódiverging' and 'accommodatingóassimilating' dimensions. Dunn and Dunn (1978) ó 18 different categories under four main groupings: environmental, emotional, sociological and physical.
	Teaching Styles	Henson and Borthwick (1984) ó suggest six different teaching approaches or styles: 'task-orientated', 'co-operative-planner', 'child-centred', 'subject-centred', 'learning-centred', and 'emotionally exciting'.

Sternberg's (1997) theory of 'mental self-government' provides a view of thinking styles in which he attempts to address some of the current criticisms of cognitive style research. In proposing his new theory of 'mental self-government', he identifies ten problem areas related to theories of style, and proposes some 15 criteria, which he states need to be met in order that styles can be fitted into a stable framework.

Sternberg argues that the strength of his theory lies in its ability to unify style theory into a 'clear organizing model or metaphor' (Sternberg, 1997, p.150).

However, some of Sternberg's (1997) criteria are, however, at odds with other writers about cognitive style such as Curry (1983) and Riding and Rayner (1998). For example, 'style' is considered to be a relatively permanent disposition to respond and think in certain ways, (Curry, 1983) and (Riding and Rayner, 1998), whereas Sternberg (1997) implies that style is variable, e.g. "People differ in their stylistic flexibility", "Styles can vary across the life span", "Styles are teachable".

This view of stylistic flexibility, or 'adaptability', and the possibility of change during a person's life-span has some similar threads to the cognitive style proposed by Kirton (1994). Kirton proposed a dimension of style based on the bi-polar construct 'adaptoróinnovator'.

An examination of these different models will now be presented. The -activity-centred stylesø will be covered in the third section of this chapter in the description of learning styles.

Cognition-centred models and theories

The cognition-centred models and theories in Sternberg's classification of styles include: 'field dependence/independence', 'equivalence range', 'category width', 'conceptual style', 'impulsivity/reflectivity', 'compartmentalization', 'conceptual integration', 'tolerance for unrealistic experiences', and 'scanning'. Although this appears to provide a wide range of possible types of style, they can be more easily rationalized once the descriptions of each construct have been examined.

Field-dependence – independence

This particular style theory focuses on the ways we see objects relative to their context, or despite their context. The origins of this construct label are linked to the work of Witkin (1964) and associate researchers going back to the late 1940s. The tests that Witkin devised have been criticised as not being pure assessments of style since they also correlate with ability, in particular 'fluid ability' (Grigorenko and Sternberg, 1995). Field-independence has also been found to be almost indistinguishable from spatial ability (MacLeod, Jackson and Palmer, 1986). This style is sometimes labelled 'global/articulated'. Global individuals have been found in Witkin's research to be less able to separate out relevant details from irrelevant details in a given situation. By contrast, 'articulated' individuals are able to differentiate and filter out the irrelevant detail.

Equivalence range

This particular style is characterized by the way individuals categorize, or 'code' things. Labels such as 'leveller' and 'sharpeners', 'lumper and splitter', 'serialist and

holist' have been used to describe the characteristics of people who see things as more alike or as very different. Levellers tend to lump things together within a general category whereas sharpeners tend to differentiate similar things into more separate categories. For example, experts in a particular field would tend to be able to differentiate objects such as trees into finer classifications. A novice on the other hand may just think of a Scots Pine as just a tree.

It may be argued that these examples may be considered to be more highly linked with ability and experience. However, a propensity to consider detail rather than the whole might be considered to be a cognitive style.

Category width

This style is characterized by the way individuals are able to perceive categories broadly or narrowly. In some ways this is not dissimilar to 'equivalence range' above except that spatial aspects such as physical size are included. The latter are exemplified by those who tend to over estimate size or consistently underestimate size.

In Kelly's 'Personal Construct Theory' (1955) both 'equivalence range' and 'category width' have parallels in his concepts of 'range of convenience' and 'organization corollary' in which individuals vary in the way they include or exclude objects, or people, from constructs. Or, the degree of flexibility in the way they use constructs can be flexible or limited. Essentially, Kelly's work is seen to be more linked with 'personality constructs' (see later section) than with cognitive style.

Impulsivity – reflectivity

Kagan et al. (1964) proposed the style of 'impulsivityóreflectivity' to describe the manner in which individuals approached problem solving situations. This style is also similar to that of 'focussingóscanning' proposed by Bruner et al. (1956). Bruner argues that extreme 'focusers' delay hypothesis-making until they have amassed sufficient evidence to support it. Extreme scanners form a hypothesis quickly and have to repeat the process when further evidence disproves their hypothesis. Overall, the reflective person tends to be slower, but more accurate; whereas the impulsive person is quicker but makes more errors.

The construct 'impulsive' is also considered to be a personality trait linked to 'psychoticism'. This assumption suggests that impulsivity is more of a personality attribute than a cognitive style. However, there is some possibility that the trait 'impulsive' can have some effect on cognitive processing as outlined above.

Compartmentalization

This style is similar to those described above that utilize the cognitive skill (or ability) of categorization. Some individuals are quick to fit people or things into particular categories; this may also be considered as stereotyping. Others are more flexible in the way they view and categorize people, situations and things.

From these examples it is possible to see that there appears to be some overlap between personality aspects and abilities depending how one views style.

According to Sternberg, style appears to be closely linked to abilities, a view he shares with Grigorenko (Grigorenko and Sternberg, 1993). This is due, they argue, to the fact that the dimensions of style illustrated have a positive as well as a negative pole. Some attributes are considered desirable whereas others are undesirable, or less desirable. As an example, *reflectivity* can be seen to be advantageous whereas *impulsivity* is considered a disadvantage. The social desirability can be seen particularly in the way styles of approach to learning are viewed in a school situation. The fact that one is more preferred, or possibly linked more with success at school would tend to put these constructs on a continuum scale similar to abilities.

The fact that one is considered to be *good* and the other *bad* suggests that it puts them outside the criterion required by a style, namely that a pure style is considered to be neither good nor bad but just different.

Alternatively, one could consider these two example *styles* as being two completely separate scales on which individuals could be positioned somewhere along each continuum. In other words, every individual behaves with some degree of reflectivity and some level of impulsivity. However, in practice an increase in one would tend to equate with a decrease in the other, thus they would have a high negative correlation.

In comparing *abilities* and *styles* it would seem that the former can be evaluated in terms of presence or absence of an attribute; that is, one would take a quantitative approach to something that is highly prized when present. Styles, on the other hand, represent a qualitative view of the way individuals approach tasks and situations, whose positioning at either end of the style continuum is considered neither good or

bad, advantageous nor disadvantageous, but just a propensity to do certain things in certain ways.

Kogan (1973) proposed dividing styles into three types according to *how close they are to the abilities domain* (with Type I styles closest to the abilities domain and Type III farthest away from this domain). However, (Sternberg, *op cit*) considers that this merely categorizes the problem rather than structures the solution.

The Curry (1983) model described in the previous chapter, in contrast to the Kogan taxonomy described above, takes a different view as to where style fits into the *cognition-personality* dimension. The Kogan view uses the *abilities-personality* dimension as the basis for classifying style, whereas the Curry view appears to suggest that style has some kind of *mediating* role between the perceptual aspects of cognition and the personality aspects of learning response, a view shared by Riding and Rayner (1998). The debate about where *styles* fit into the *cognition-personality* domain still continues.

An alternative category system in the group of cognition-centred models of cognitive style is proposed by Riding and Rayner (1998). Their view provides an overall framework into which the cognitive styles described above can be categorized according to two main dimensions of style attributes; these are 'wholist-analytic' and 'verbal-imagery'. Examples, some of which have already been described, of each dimension are listed below.

The Wholist–Analytic Dimension

Field dependencyóindependency	Witkin and Asch
Levelling ó sharpening	Klein (1954); Gardner et al. (1959)
Impulsivity ó reflectiveness	Kagan et al. (1964), Kagan (1966)
Converging ó diverging thinking	Guildford (1967); Hudson (1966, 1968)
Holist ó serialist thinking	Pask and Scott (1972); Pask (1976)
Concrete sequential / concrete random/ abstract sequential/ abstract random	Gregorc (1982)
Assimilator ó explorer	Kaufmann (1989)
Adaptors ó innovators	Kirton (1976, 1987)
Reasoning ó intuitive active ó contemplative	Allinson and Hayes (1996)

The characteristics associated with the cognitive styles models included in the 'wholistóanalytic' dimension that have not been described so far will be outlined below.

Converging–diverging thinking: Converging thinkers, or problem solvers, will tend to prefer tasks that are structured and require logical processes to solve them. The divergent thinker on the other hand will generally prefer open-ended situations that allow for some measure of creativity to be applied to solving the problem.

Holist–serialist thinkers: Holists tend to take a top-down global view of a situation and take a thematic view involving several aspects at once. The serialist will tend to take a step-by-step approach and attend to more of the detail. Pask (1984) also pointed out that the most effective learners were those who could use both approaches.

Assimilator–explorer: In their research (Martinsen and Kaufmann, 1991) they found

that assimilators preferred a structured approach to learning whereas explorers, as the construct name suggests, prefer a more open 'discovery' approach.

Adaptor–innovator: Kirton (1994) describes the differences in 'adaptoróinnovator' style in terms that those who 'adapt' try to do things better, and those who 'innovate' try doing things differently. These descriptions of style take a qualitatively different stance from other concepts of style in that it looks at the ways individuals cope with the environmental aspects of learning and problem-solving. He also asserts that the personality traits developed early in a person's life are particularly stable. This particular assumption is presumably based on research that traits are influenced through heritability, though they will be influenced in the longer term by environmental effects (Loehlin, 1992).

Reasoning – intuitive active – contemplative: Allinson and Hayes (1996) proposed a uni-dimensional model of style based on the construct 'analyticóintuitive'. The Cognitive Styles Index devised to assess this dimension of cognitive style has been based on research into characteristics of 'right brain' 'left brain' thinking. Allinson and Hayes (op cit.) suggest that right brain individuals are characterized by and 'intuitive' approach whereas left brain individuals are characterized by being 'analytic', a characteristic of which is logical reasoning and focus on detail.

The Verbal–Imagery Dimension

Abstract versus concrete thinker	Harvey et al. (1961)
VerbaliseróVisualiser	Paivio (1971); Riding and Taylor (1976); Richardson (1977); Riding and Calvey (1981)

Whereas the 'wholistóanalytic' dimension focuses on the range and level of detail used

in cognitive processing, the 'verbalóimagery' dimension focuses on the coding and storage mechanisms that are used in the process of thinking. Ideas are generally of two kinds, 'concrete' or 'abstract'. It is also possible to think of general concrete ideas as generalized abstractions; for example the 'concrete' concept of a dog can be thought of as an image of one's own pet or a friend's. Or, it is possible to code the concept verbally in general terms that will differentiate it from a cat. Paivio's 'dual-code theory' (Paivio, 1971, 1979) proposes two separate coding systems 'verbal' and 'imaginal'. According to this theory pictures should be better remembered than either concrete or abstract words since pictures are more strongly processed than by the verbal coding system.

An alternative view proposed by Nelson, et al. (1977) suggests a 'sensoryósemantic' model. In this model it is suggested that pictures produce better sensory codes than do words since their meaning is accessed differently.

A further view of how thought is encoded is that of 'mental models' (Johnson-Laird, 1983). Ideas in the form of models, "need be neither wholly accurate nor correspond completely with what they model in order to be useful. For example, a person's model of a television set may vary from a 'box that displays moving pictures' to a highly detailed and elaborate representation of its functioning as possessed by a skilled TV repairman." (Anderson, et al., 1996).

This view of mental modelling appears to encapsulate not only the aspects of verbal or visual encoding but also the level of detail that can be called upon depending upon a person's experience and skill. However, Johnson-Laird's original views about 'mental

modelling' focused on aspects of reasoning and deduction. He suggests that mental models are transitory entities and are constructed as needed and manipulated until a conclusion is reached, and subsequently discarded (Johnson-Laird and Byrne, 1991).

An integrated model of cognitive style has been proposed that combines the 'wholistó analytic' and 'verbalóimagery' dimensions into a single model (Riding, 1991). The basic structure of the model provides a nine cell grid as follows:

Table 3:2 Cognitive Style model – Riding (1991)

1. Analytic-verbaliser	2. Analytic-bimodal	3. Analytic-imager
4. Intermediate-verbaliser	5. Intermediate-bimodal	6. Intermediate-imager
7. Wholist-verbaliser	8. Wholist-bimodal	9. Wholist-imager

This model brings together the disparate areas of research illustrated above into a more coherent description that accounts for the way individuals are able to see 'the whole' or 'the details' and whether encoded symbolically in words or in pictorial images. Details of the assessment instrument 'The Cognitive Styles Analysis' (Riding, 1991) are described in a later section of the chapter.

Section summary

So far, a broad view of the cognitive styles field has been described. The examples given so far provide some insight into how the nature of cognitive style is perceived by different researchers in the field. Some research has focused on perceptual aspects and the problems of differentiating style and ability. Other research considers

cognitive style as one of cognitive control, process and attitude. These views are essentially 'cognition-centred' and relate to processing and coding, although the aspect of attitude will be examined again under the category of personality.

The next section of the chapter will look in more detail at some of the main areas of psychological research, in particular 'personality-centred styles', that contribute to the field of cognitive style. In the process, personality constructs, and factors, will be examined to see how the use of similar constructs in both fields has led to the conceptual 'minefield' that currently exists.

Personality-centred models and theories

In this section, two areas of research will be examined, which broadly correspond to the inner layers of the onion model metaphor (Curry, 1983), namely:

- Models and theories of neuroscience
- Models and theories of personality

First of all, some aspects of neuroscience will be explored as they are fundamental to understanding the building blocks of learning; namely, perception and information processing. Aspects of personality-centred cognitive style, to continue with the Sternberg classifications used earlier, will follow since they appear to form the interface between the 'inner' mind and cognitive processing domain. These aspects will be brought together at the end of this section.

Models and theories of neuroscience

The three-layer onion model of cognitive functioning, used as a metaphorical prop, describes the interrelationships between the environmental factors and physiological

factors that are involved in the learning process; as opposed to a literal and physical model of the geography of the brain. The personality elements of cognitive style outlined in the next section have certain common themes in terms of how people perceive the world about them. To a large extent the reactions to stimuli are assessed through observing behaviour; this can be through either direct observation or through analysing responses to questionnaires in a verbal (oral) or written form.

A study of how external stimuli affect the neurophysiological system takes us into the realms of biochemistry and neurophysiology but to pursue this in the current research may not be very fruitful on two counts; (1) specialist knowledge and equipment would be required to examine the processes going on in the brain, and (2) the level of focus would be at a too finer level of detail to be valuable. Such focused research looks at just one part of the complex jig-saw without necessarily looking at the wider picture; assuming that adjacent parts of the jig-saw are available in order to help build up the bigger picture. The parallel with computers would be akin to understanding the processor chip circuitry as opposed to program functionality.

Of the aspects that form a useful background, the two areas of neuroscience and cognitive psychology are of interest since they focus on separate areas of functioning; (1) *neurobiological* ó on attention, learning and perception; (2) *cognitive psychology* ó on knowledge representation, problem solving and decision-making. Research in these two areas have tended to follow two parallel paths rather than a single complementary one (Haberlandt, 1994).

The Neurobiological view

Whereas neuroscience looks at the functioning of the brain, particularly examining the 'inputs' and how these relate to aspects like consciousness (Rose, 1998), cognitive psychology has focused on many of the processing aspects and the observable 'outputs'.

In relation to the processes of learning, only a brief outline of neuroscience aspects will be described; since further detail will not help with an understanding about style. In terms of cognitive style, there are two aspects of cognitive processing, (1) sub-conscious processing, and (2) conscious processing.

Many activities, particularly those of a routine nature, are processed at a level that we are not normally aware of. One particular example would be that of driving to and from work. During the journey we are probably less conscious of the route and driving the vehicle in the right direction and more conscious of other thoughts such as what lies ahead at work, or what shall I eat when I get home. Our brain would be in an aroused state even of those processing events of which we are not aware.

However, if we were conscious, or aware, of all the sensory inputs that bombard us and the processing involved, our brains would rapidly suffer 'cognitive overload.'

Many of the studies in cognitive processing research focus on aspects of conscious attention to some individual task. This is particularly so in studies that examine aspects of perception. In the process of examining cognitive style, if style is considered to be a relatively permanent propensity to do things in a certain way (Riding and Rayner, 1998, p. 7) then it is probable that these processes fall into the

area of sub-conscious level of processing; since, if we were to be conscious of our style this could imply that one could consciously do something to modify performance and act differently.

Neurological studies of the sub-conscious aspects of cognitive processing would be difficult to design and carry out; since researchers would need to be able to observe some particular aspect of behaviour and thereby in the process make the subject aware of that behaviour. The study of meta-cognitive processes is perhaps less difficult in this respect since they are reflective processes, i.e. thinking about thinking, and because of the level of arousal required in order to be aware of being aware.

Whereas a full neurobiological picture of primary processes can now more easily be obtained, research into aspects of higher cognitive functioning are more problematical since they involve iterative processes (Singer, 1998). For example, it is possible to talk about training the 'inner eye' or the 'inner ear'. This involves reflecting on primary sensory inputs that are then fed back into the perceptual memory.

"The idea is that there are second-order processes that treat the output of the first-order processes in the same way as these treat sensory signals and that the results of these secondary, higher-order cognitive processes should also have access to effector systems and to the control of behaviour just as is the case for the primary processes." (Singer, 1998)

To proceed further down the neurobiological route, although interesting in itself, will not contribute further to the discussion about cognitive style except to consider that cognitive style possibly has a sub-conscious element, which has developed through some internal feedback mechanism.

Cognitive psychology view

The second aspect of the neuroscience view is that of cognitive psychology. This view takes knowledge in its broadest sense, and categorizes it into two main categories, (1) declarative, and (2) procedural. Also, this view considers two processing aspects of knowledge storage namely, (1) representation, and (2) organization.

Knowledge is of basically two types; (1) declarative, and (2) procedural. Essentially these are respectively 'knowing what' and 'knowing how'.

Declarative knowledge is fundamentally made up of 'concepts' of varying degrees of specificity, for example 'animal', 'sparrow'. Concepts also range from 'concrete' to 'abstract' in their nature. Procedural knowledge is based on remembering sequences of activity in the form of 'rules'. These rules connect declarative knowledge to the real world particularly in activities such as problem-solving and motor skills.

In response to sensory stimulation, inputs, the brain processes the information in these two main ways. The information that is to be stored has to be represented in some form. A computer, for example, stores information electronically in the form of binary electronic states, 0 or 1. The brain has a more flexible mechanism using both a symbolic form such as language, and a pictorial form such as images.

In terms of a representational aspect of cognitive style, it is possible to remember these concepts as 'images' of examples that have been experienced, or they can be stored in a symbolic form as 'words'. Some concepts are more easily stored in a symbolic form, particularly abstract concepts such as 'happy'. Whereas, some more common objects can be stored either as images or words depending on an individual's

preference, or relating to the context in which the information needs to be retrieved or operated on (Miller, 1996).

In terms of organization, the computer uses a system of bytes at the lowest level ranging to complete programs at the highest level. The human brain is undoubtedly more complex and organizes information in the form of 'knowledge'. The processes involved in organizing information are complex at the neurological level, and equally complex at the cognitive level. Knowledge, in the form of stored symbols and images, is probably stored in the form of 'semantic networks' (Collins and Quillian, 1969) or ~~mental models~~ (Johnson-Laird, 1983). The processing of a statement involves corresponding concepts to become active and the activation spreads along the links in the semantic network.

These processes will be returned to later in the chapter when the Cognitive Styles Analysis instrument (Riding, 1991) will be described.

Models and theories of personality

Sternberg (1997), referred to earlier, states that the main problem of psychological research into personality and cognitive style is the absence of an organizing theory or model for understanding styles, and how they relate to each other. He goes on to state that;

“Each set of styles is a separate entity unto itself, without any unifying framework that relates, say, field independence to category width, or category width to reflectivity. In this respect, the literature on styles diverges from most psychological literature, where there has been an attempt to specify a relatively more complete taxonomy, say, of abilities or of personality traits.”

In pursuing the theme of personality and style, the role of personality factors will now be examined. First of all it is worthwhile examining some of the construct labels that abound in the fields of personality and cognitive psychology.

It is possible to observe that personality and cognitive style is many-faceted and complex; a short spell of people watching would confirm this. The words people use, i.e. construct labels, to name these behaviours could be examined and compared to find out their similarities. Although some of the labels have been referred to earlier, amongst the research literature the following bipolar dimensions can also be found that have links with personality attributes:

Authoritarianism ó dogmatism	Adorno et al (1950, <i>The Authoritarian Personality</i>)
Focusing ó scanning	Bruner, J.S. et al (1956 <i>A Study of Thinking</i>)
Field-dependence ó field independence global ó articulated	Witkin, H.A. et al (1954 <i>Personality through perception</i>)

Reflectivity ó impulsivity	Kagan, J. (1966 <i>Development studies in reflection and analysis</i>)
Extraversion ó introversion	Eysenck, H.J. (1947 <i>Dimensions of Personality</i>)
	Myers-Briggs (<i>E–I dimension</i> , 1980)
Intuition ó analysis	Allinson-Hayes (1988 et seq. <i>Cultural differences in the Learning Styles of Managers</i>)
Sensing ó Intuitive	Myers-Briggs (1980)
Wholist ó analytic	Riding, R. (1991 <i>Cognitive Styles Analysis</i>)
Global ó local	Sternberg, R.J. (1997 <i>Thinking styles</i>)

These are but a few of the construct classifications that appear in the research field.

Riding and Cheema (1991) identified some 30 labels. Indeed the number of construct labels used in the various models of personality is even larger; and finding one's way through all their meanings can be tortuous. Trying to make sense of these meanings is also confusing. For example, one needs to ask the question, "Are the behaviours that use the same label, but appear in separate models, qualitatively the same?"

In order to answer this question, one of the important point that needs to be considered is the methodology used in the research to explore these "factors" and what criteria were used in gathering the data. So, the problem for the reader of research is that of understanding the qualitative differences in what appear to be identical labels, by understanding how their underlying meanings were derived.

One of the major problems in coming to an understanding of the underlying meaning of constructs is compounded by the fact that personality, cognitive and learning styles

studies use some of the same construct labels. Therefore, one probably needs to ask, "Are cognitive styles but a sub-set of personality variables?"

The question is difficult to answer without sufficient correlational research into the relationships between data collected from the different instruments.

Reviews of various measures, e.g. Furnham (1995), Rayner and Riding (1997) and Sadler-Smith (1997), are inconclusive in answering this fundamental question and they point to the need for more research, and correlational studies, into identifying the basic factors involved. The proliferation of instruments developed during the last 50 years has led to a "balkanization" of this field of research (Furnham, 1995 op. cit.) and as a result has comparability research more complex. (The situation is almost analogous to the fluctuating movements in the currency markets and this leading to a call for common standards, or a common currency.)

The relative imprecision of spoken and written language, and particularly the "esoteric" language of personality research, presents a significant problem when it comes to communicating with people from different disciplines. The problem with using this "specialized language" is summarized by Cloninger (1996),

"A specialized language, though, is no guarantee of scientific advance. David Funder (1991) has criticized many purported scientific personality variables for being unnecessarily "esoteric" or they are deliberately nonintuitive or even counterintuitive." He defends traits as appropriate concepts for scientific study of personality. Funder argues that we should study traits that are related to concepts used by "insightful observers," rather than those that are esoterically scientific."

Another difficulty in assessing and describing personality in general, is that of identifying the factors that determine behaviours; similar problems also arise when

describing cognitive style. Leading on from this there is the question as to what factors of behaviour are determined from within the person and to what are externally determined? One method for testing out which of these factors is primarily responsible are the research studies of twins. Studies of twins have examined links between both genetically determined factors and environmental factors (Rose *et al.*, 1988) and also specific gene combination differences between identical and fraternal twins (Pederson *et al.*, 1988). From these, and other studies, there appears to be some genetic and biological determinants of personality.

Similarly, other research studies point to environmental factors; these are essentially based on studies of social interactions that affect how individuals behave in a social context. Personality traits reflect the mutually-negotiated construction of the meaning of acts within this dynamic social interaction (Deary and Matthews, 1993).

One of the main aims of psychological research in the field of personality has been the attempt to find a consistent model on which to base future research; in effect to identify a stable framework on which to build psychological theory. Digman and Inouye (1986) reported a series of research studies that supported a theory that, the domain of personality descriptors is almost completely accounted for by five robust factors. Cattell (1995) discusses the merits and fallacies of the five-factor theory by maintaining that research findings do not confirm the same five factors in each study. The 16 Personality Factor model (Cattell, 1973) has been confirmed by his further research (Cattell, 1995).

A more recent review of personality models (Hampson, 1999) considers that the main models of personality used currently are based on either three, five or 16 factors. In her review she weighs the evidence for and against each of the models. In general, the supporting evidence favours the 'The Big Five'; since this model appears to be able to account for the majority of factors identified within the other models.

New concepts such as 'social cognitive units' have also been proposed (Mischel and Shoda, 1995, 1998) in which situational factors are considered to affect individual behaviour patterns. One has probably noticed for example how a 'normally' introverted person can in certain situations behave more extrovertly. There are still many unanswered questions relating to personality assessment and new areas such as molecular genetics and psychobiography will widen the field even further (Hampson, 1999).

The next section examines the background to some of the more major of these personality models and their links with cognitive style.

Factorial studies of personality

The topics of personality, cognitive style and learning style have received considerable attention in the last 50 or 60 years. Models of personality have been developed by researchers who have observed and studied outward manifestations of behaviour and subjected their data to statistical analysis to identify what are thought to be some of the common factors. As a result of the many factorial studies carried out, there have been proposals for models comprising; 3 factors (the 'Big Three' Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) 1. extraversion, 2. neuroticism, 3. psychoticism), 4 factors (Kline

and Barrett (1983) 1. extraversion, 2. anxiety, 3. tough-mindedness; and 4. obsessiveness), 5 factors (the 'Big Five' Costa, McCrae and Dye (1991), Deary and Matthews (1993), Furnham, Jackson, Forde & Cotter (1995) or 1. neuroticism, 2. extraversion, 3. openness, 4. agreeableness and 5. conscientiousness), and a 16-factor (16PF Cattell 1973) model of personality.

Applying labels to these factors is largely a subjective task resulting from detailed observation and analysis. Consequently, the interpretation of their meaning can only be gained if one is aware of the methods used for gathering and analysing the data.

In this particular study I shall not focus on the merits, or disadvantages, of 3 factor, 4 factor, 5 factor or 16 factor models but just to emphasise that personality constructs can have a range of interpretations.

Whilst research continues in the field of personality, there may be some optimism expressed that the 'Big Five' factor model is proving to be consistent (Costa & McCrae, 1993; Hampson 1999), though some caution needs to be observed (Cattell 1995). In Cattell's discussion he points out that some of the underlying principles of factor analysis have not been fully understood by researchers. Kline (1993) analyses the basic problem as follows;

“Factoring any set of items can produce factors which load on items essentially semantically similar. Such factors are bloated specifics (Cattell, 1978) and many social psychological scales are of this kind. This problem, of the meaning of factors in personality inventories, from validated factors to tautologous sets of items, bedevils questions concerning the number of personality factors. In truth there can be as many factors as item writers can construct from groups of similar items. That is why all personality factors should be identified not from their factor loadings but from their correlations with external criteria.”

It is the lack of a unifying structure and the absence of correlational data of the various instruments with external criteria that leaves this area of research without stable anchors or referents. In addressing this problem, Kline and Barrett (1983) carried out cross-correlational studies of a number of personality assessment instruments. They concluded that four major factors account for the normal personality behaviours, though err on the side of caution in cases of abnormal behaviour by suggesting the probability of further factors.

There appear to be several approaches to the classification of personality and behaviour, of which three are selected for comment as to their relevance to the current research study.

1. *Realism* ó observation of the physical manifestations of behaviour that correspond to aspects of personality.
2. *Social constructivist* ó a view that assumes personality concepts are a result of socially created constructs and provide an insight into how we understand ourselves and others.
3. *Interactionist view* ó an individual's behaviour is determined partly by their personal traits and partly by the context in which the behaviour takes place. Situations influence people, but they do not influence everyone in the same way. (See Magnusson, 1990)

The *realism* view of personality focuses on what is sometimes termed *the biological, or biochemical, basis of behaviour*. This view is probably more akin to computer programmer's view of how computers work and whose interest is in the bits and bytes and coding aspects of programming.

In the 'social constructivist view', aspects of individuals' personalities are seen as a reflection of the way they perceive the world around them. In Kelly's *Personal*

Construct Theory (1955) each person constructs their own version of their world and their view of reality. Kelly proposes a model for looking at individuals' construction of reality. In his theory, a description of reality is built up in terms of hierarchically linked sets of bi-polar constructs, e.g. *ugly-beautiful*, *out-going-shy*, *good-bad*. Researchers and writers on cognitive style also use many similar examples of bi-polar constructs to describe the range of behaviours observed in population samples (Rayner and Riding 1997, pp. 869).

One of the difficulties with interpreting the labels used in learning and cognitive style research, in common with areas of personality, is the difficulties that arise in understanding the construct labels used. Possible reasons why these confusions can arise have already been described in the previous section in terms of Kelly's personal construct theory (Kelly, 1955). Whereas Kelly's theory looks at how individuals perceive and describe their own world, the 'interactionist' takes a wider view.

In the *interactionist's* view, the description and assessment of personality is seen as a being more complex. The process of personality assessment takes into account all the contextual and environmental factors within which the individual interacts, as well as the mental state of the individual, which also might have an influence on the results. Because of the complexity of the interactionists' view of personality, Bentall (1993) expresses some scepticism about the utility of the more simplistic personality trait factors view, especially in the clinical psychotherapy field. He states that, as a clinical psychologist, the first stage in dealing with a client involves analysing the problems as seen by the client rather than being, in effect, 'pigeon-holed' or 'compartmentalized'

by the therapist into a series of personality traits.

This clinical psychology perspective view of the "science of personality" being *value-free* appears to be counter to those views, such as those expressed by Kline (1993), and those who are searching for greater clarification and increased "precision" in the assessment of personality.

To recapitulate the point raised earlier, whilst the range of descriptions for the classification and assessment of personality is wide, it is only through reading researchers' reports about how data was gathered, the descriptors used, how the data has been factorized and how their meanings have been refined, that the reader can arrive at a clearer concept of what the personality constructs represent. Kline (1993) suggests that "personality factors should be identified not from their factor loadings but from their correlations with external criteria." This clarification of concepts is necessary if our understanding is to have common meaning.

Cognitive style and personality factors

In order to bring the strands of personality and cognitive styles together, a return will be made to the Sternberg category of 'personality-centred' style.

Two sub-categories are proposed, namely; (1) Psychological types, and (2) Energetic theory of mind styles.

Psychological types

Of the factorial theories of personality examined above, Sternberg (1997) only cites the Jungian based 'Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)' (Myers, 1978) model of personality as a model of style. The focus is on the differential 'styles' used by people who are categorized as 'extrovert' or 'introvert', those who tend to be 'intuitive' or 'sensing' or 'think' rather than 'feel' and those who 'perceive' rather than 'judge'. The 16 types identified in the model do appear to help to describe individuals in the way they approach tasks and other people.

To some extent this model examines the characteristics of the interface between the individual and the environmental context and therefore in the 'onion' model terms appears to explain processes in the middle to outer layers. A description of 'learning styles' (Myers and Myers, 1980) would appear to support a view that the model focuses more on approaches to learning rather than cognitive style.

Energetic theory of mind styles

In the classification of style, Sternberg only uses one model to exemplify this particular aspect of style. He proposes Gregorc's model of how people tend to learn,

i.e. 'concrete' 'abstract' and 'sequential' 'random' Sternberg describes this style in terms of how individuals organize 'time' and 'space'. This model suggests that people tend to prefer to think either in terms of 'concrete' ideas or in a more 'abstract' and metaphorical mode. They may also prefer to work sequentially or in a much freer mode according to how they feel emotionally.

It is probably appropriate to remind oneself at this point that Sternberg is proposing a model of 'thinking' style rather than 'cognitive' style. However, there are some elements that relate to cognitive style, which will be raised later on.

Section summary

In this section personality-centred aspects of cognitive style have been described.

Personality is seen as being both biologically as well as socially and environmentally shaped. The neurobiological determinants of personality are seen as affecting mood and general aspects of behaviour but are not particularly useful in studying cognitive style.

The cognitive psychology view on the other hand does focus on processes that do influence style, namely aspects of perception and encoding. However, in studying the dimensions of cognitive style constructs, one is never far from the attributes of personality. Some labels are used for both personality and attributes of style.

The factorial studies of personality, the 'big three' or the 'big five' contain factors that correlate highly with dimensions of cognitive style, e.g. impulsivityóreflectivity, and extroversionóintroversion. Finally, there is a brief summary of Sternberg's classification of personality-centred styles

Learning styles

This section of the chapter will look at aspects of learning style. It is important first of all to understand what 'learning style' is and how this differs from 'cognitive style'.

Riding and Rayner (1998) in helping to clarify the concept state, "learning style should be understood to refer to an individual set of differences that include not only a stated preference for instruction or an association with a particular form of learning activity but also individual differences found in intellectual or personal psychology." (p.51).

Another definition, also referred to by Riding and Rayner, is from Griggs (1991), who defines 'learning style' as "the composite characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological factors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment."

Riding and Rayner (1998) go on to classify the models of style in four categories:

- The learning process ó based on experiential learning
- The learning process ó based on orientation to study
- Instructional preference
- Cognitive skills and learning strategy development

The first three focus on the individual differences in the process of learning between individuals. The fourth category has a different emphasis and focuses on the individual and the profile of differences between a person's developing cognitive skills.

In Sternberg's model described above, there are some common elements that relate more closely to learning styles than cognitive styles. He divides the category 'activity-centred styles' into two sub-categories; (1) learning styles, and (2) teaching styles.

Riding and Rayner (1998) categorize learning styles in a different way, as follows:

- Style models based on the learning process
- Style models grounded in orientation to study
- Style models based on instructional preference
- Style models based on cognitive skills development

Sternberg illustrates his first category (learning styles) with three theories of learning, namely; Kolb's model of 'Experiential Learning' (Kolb, 1984), Dunn and Dunn (1978) 'Learning Style Inventory' and Holland's (1973) 'Theory of careers'. Few examples are used to illustrate the categories of learning styles models as compared with the Riding and Rayner (op cit.) classifications. Kolb's model of 'Experiential Learning' is one based on the learning process. Kolb's theory will be described in more detail in a later section in connection with the development of the Honey and Mumford 'Learning Styles Questionnaire'. The Dunn et al. model, although classified as a learning style by Sternberg, Riding and Rayner class this one as being based on instructional preference and that environmental stimuli aspects are influential in their effect on learning. Sternberg's second category 'teaching-style' is focused more on one of the environmental effects involved in the learning process. This aspect will not be pursued further as it is not an intra-personal aspect of style.

Whilst Sternberg focuses more on developing a theory of 'thinking styles', his exploration of the issue of cognitive styles and learning styles is left unclear for the reader. Therefore the introduction of 'teaching styles', almost as an afterthought, does not help with the understanding of style and the factors that can affect learning.

Riding and Rayner (1998), however, provide further examples of models in their categories listed above. The second category, 'orientation to study', includes a series of models that describe the ways that students can approach the task of studying. These range from the aspects of motivation and intention to learn (Biggs, 1978, 1985), to aspects of quality of learning via a 'deep' or 'surface' approach (Entwistle, 1979, Entwistle and Tait, 1994, Marton, Hounsell and Entwistle, 1997).

The third category, 'instructional preference' has been mentioned earlier with reference to Dunn et al. (1989) but also includes other models that consider the interaction of the learning environment and the interface with the learner (Price et al. 1976, 1977), including aspects of social interaction, (Grasha and Reichmann, 1975)

The fourth category, 'cognitive skills development' focuses on aspects such as perceptual modality, e.g. visual, verbal auditory and activity-based modality, (Reinert, 1976). Information storage and retrieval skills involving cognitive complexity and categorization skills, etc. (Letteri, 1980). The more recent work of Keefe and Monk (Keefe and Monk, 1986; and Keefe 1989, 1990) proposes that cognitive style acts as a controlling mechanism in the information processing aspect of learning. This particular category therefore appears to be more closely linked to cognitive style and the descriptions of areas covered earlier in the chapter.

In returning to the theme of 'stable constructs' used in the various instruments used for assessing learning style, it would appear that some of the studies lacked psychometric rigour and that the construct validity in some cases was unclear. It is also apparent that the more aspects, or constructs, are included within the assessment instruments of

learning style, the more there appear to be problems with the instrument's reliability. It would therefore seem that what could be potentially stable factors are clouded by less stable factors in the analysis of data.

Learning Strategies

It is possible to perceive the process of learning as a problem solving exercise. That is, as one is faced with learning something new it is necessary to adopt some kind of strategy in order to learn whatever has to be learnt. The process of developing strategies begins at birth and continually develops. As one encounters new problems the repertoire of strategies will tend to grow. Failure to develop new strategies during one's lifetime tends to lead to the experience of increasing levels of failure in many aspects of life, social, emotional and academic.

Strategies for learning used over time tend to become automatic, or semi-automatic, and become embedded as skills. Research into how individuals approach the task of studying identify factors within the task and the reason for carrying out the task as influencing the strategies used (Entwistle, 1981; Biggs, 1978). For example, Biggs and Collis (1982) citing some of their earlier research found that students instructed to remember facts adopted a rote learning strategy and appeared to "buy quantity of learning at the price of quality." (p.200). Quality of learning tends to be related to the level of processing that learners adopt at the time of learning (Craik and Tulving, 1975) and suggest that the 'deeper' material is encoded, and the more widespread its interconnections with the cognitive structure, the more securely it will be retained.

The strategies identified in Biggs and Collis' work include:

- Learning material for reproducing ó using memory
- Learning material for meaning ó using deeper level processing
- Learning material to be integrated in existing structure ó translating

The motivational aspects of learning, or wanting to learn, are also a significant influence in the approach to learning, or studying, and linking high performance with high levels of motivation (Entwistle and Wilson, 1977).

Learning strategies are built up over time in the form of a cognitive toolkit (Riding and Rayner, 1998) involving the 'skill' to recognize which 'tools' are going to help solve particular learning problems in particular situations. These 'skills', or strategies, include: 'attending to detail', 'identifying starting points', 'establishing and testing hypotheses', 'forward planning', 'systematic exploratory behaviour', 'reasoning and deducing', 'divergent thinking', (Weber, 1978, 1982). Other research cited by Riding and Rayner (1998) consider several aspects of learning strategy, but only those relevant to the research background to the instruments described in the next section are cited here.

The two aspects linked to learning strategies are those concerning 'learning process approach' and 'instructional preferences'. The Kolb (1984), and Honey and Mumford (1982) models are process orientated. These models focus particularly on the developmental nature of learning style. The 'instructional preferences' models focus more on the ways learners adapt their strategies according to the learning environment and situation.

Section summary

To sum up so far, it would appear that much of the research into cognitive and learning style has some similarities with the conceptual ideas that abound in personality research. In particular, there are strong indications that personality factors have some effect on how individuals are motivated to deal with learning tasks.

Cognitive style appears to be related to the intrinsic control factors of information processing. It appears that style mediates between the external 'environmental' factors and the internal personality factors.

The 'environmental' aspects of the learning situation have an extrinsic effect on how learners learn. For example, the expected outcome of the learning process is affected by the reason for setting the task, whether it be an assessment task or an assignment, and also the conditions in which the task takes place.

The two contrasting models of categorization of styles, Sternberg, and Riding and Rayner, show that different models can view the same theories in different construct categories. Whereas Sternberg has based his work on developing a model of thinking styles as applicable to the way people behave in the workplace, particularly in management roles, Riding and Rayner have structured their analysis more from an educational viewpoint in helping to explain individual differences.

In order to rationalise and simplify the plethora of models of cognition and learning, there appear to be two higher order dimensions that combine the various constructs described. The two dimensions proposed describe how individuals see things as 'wholes' or 'parts' and whether they encapsulate (or code) concepts symbolically or in

images. Riding and Rayner (1998) have proposed the 'wholistóanalyst' and 'verbaliseróimager' dimensions as a model of cognitive style that includes the major attributes associated with the other style models described.

A brief description of learning strategies has been included since it relates how approaches to learning, motivational aspects as well as environmental factors all play a part in the way individuals learn. The interaction of all these variables make for a complex situation for researchers studying cognitive and learning styles.

Learning Style Assessment

The research areas reviewed above have explored the field of cognitive style and learning style models each of which has used a specifically designed instrument for testing the model. Many of these instruments have been criticised for lacking psychometric rigour and conceptual clarity and this has added to the confusion and complexity described earlier.

A distillation of these model frameworks can be encompassed within a 'wholist' or 'analytic' dimension, but the question arises, 'what are the behavioural indicators?' This has required further research to help refine the meaning of these constructs. In terms of types of cognitive style, the behavioural descriptors suggest that whilst some people focus on details, others look for the broader picture. However, it is possibly more likely that we do a bit of both depending on how our minds are directed, or on our previous experiences, or assisted to see a different point of view. Some individuals will need more help to see the detail whilst others will need help to see the bigger picture.

Why some individuals view things 'wholistically' or 'analytically' is not clear from the current research. Why people have, or develop, these styles, or what makes individuals organize their experiences and memories in particular ways is a subject for more in-depth research into the nature/nurture debate and the field of cognitive psychology and neuroscience. New constructs will no doubt emerge in the future but what has happened so far?

The current research will use two instruments, one focusing on learning style the other on cognitive style. Their origins are based on theories and models described above but are brought together in what is proposed as a unifying model.

The first model to be described aims at examining some of the environmental factors and processes that affect students' learning, namely how material to be learned is delivered to, and acquired and processed by the learner. The model, devised by Kolb (1984) uses a theme of 'experiential learning' and brings together some of the different strands outlined in chapter 2 on theories of learning into a more coherent whole as follows:

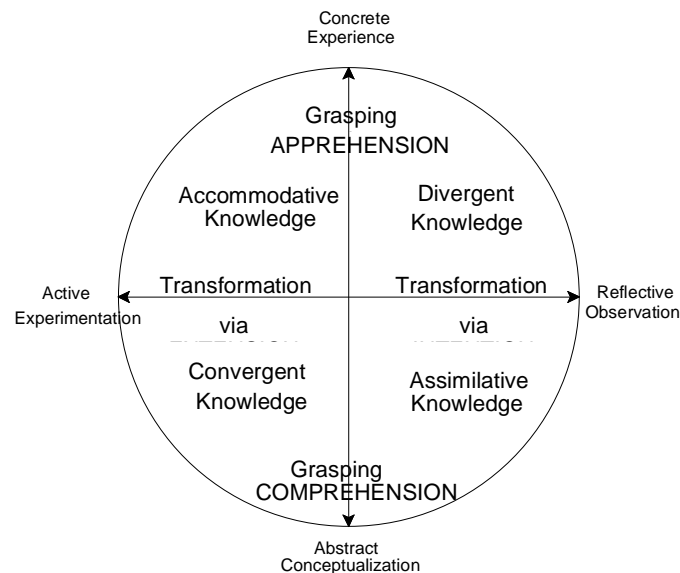


Figure 3:1 Kolb's model of Experiential Learning

In essence, the process of 'apprehension' is the receiving of concrete stimuli from our experiences from which order and structure are imposed in the process of 'comprehension' leading to 'abstract conceptualization' of these experiences. The receiving of information, through sensory perception, is initially random, depending

on what we focus on from moment to moment, and this results in divergent knowledge that becomes raw food for thought ó reflective observation

Through the process of comprehension, this information is internally transformed and becomes assimilative knowledge and ready for transformation via extension, in which the abstract conceptualizations combine to become convergent knowledge. The convergent knowledge is then available for active experimentation and through further apprehension becomes accommodative knowledge. This cycle of processes in learning lead to the production of building blocks for developmentally higher levels of knowing. The simple perception of experience is not sufficient for learning; something must be done with it. Similarly, transformation alone cannot represent learning, for there must be something to be transformed, some state or experience that is being acted upon. (Kolb, op.cit.).

Craik and Lockhart (1972) view learning and remembering as dependent on levels of processing. Their theoretical framework involves a central control mechanism, the primary memory or attentional system, and they interpret learning entirely in terms of moving through ever deeper levels of processing. Memory is considered as simply a by-product of thinking: that is, traces left behind by past information processing. (Schmeck, 1983). To some extent this view is closely linked to the example of mental models (Johnson-Laird, 1983) described above.

Earlier in this chapter the building blocks of the learning process have been considered, and one of the models, Kolb (1984), develops a theory of learning that takes a pragmatic view of the learning process. Kolb developed an instrument, The

Learning Styles Inventory (LSI) for analysing individual learning styles.

The Learning Styles Inventory (LSI)

Kolb developed his learning styles inventory to provide an instrument that could assess the learning styles proposed in his model; this is based on four main objectives:

• the test should be constructed in such a way that people would respond to it in somewhat the same way as they would a learning situation; that is it should require one to resolve the opposing tensions between abstract and concrete and active and reflective orientations.

• a self-description format was chosen for the inventory, since the notion of possibility-processing structure relies heavily on conscious choice and decision.

• the inventory was constructed with the hope that it would prove to be valid so that the measures of learning styles would predict behaviour in a way that was consistent with the theory of experiential learning.

• The test should be brief and straightforward, so that in addition to research uses, it could be used as a means of discussing the learning process with those tested and giving them feedback on their own learning styles.

The test itself is a nine item self-reporting questionnaire. Each item comprises four words which the individual respondent is required to rank order. The pattern of rank ordering the words provides an indication of their learning preference or style.

The results of the LSI indicate a person's relative emphasis on each of the four modes in the learning process – concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE) – plus two combination scores that indicate the extent to which the person emphasises abstractness over concreteness (AC-CE) and the extent to which the person emphasises action over reflection (AE-RO).

Characteristics of the basic learning styles

Kolb develops ideas from his model by describing the characteristics that underpin the learning styles observed. He writes:

“Over time, individuals develop unique possibility-processing structures such that the dialectic tensions between the prehension and transformation dimensions are consistently resolved in a characteristic fashion.”

“Through socialization experiences in family, school and work, we come to resolve the conflicts between being active and reflective and between being immediate and analytical in characteristic ways, thus leading to reliance on one of the four basic forms of knowing:

divergence, achieved by reliance on apprehension transformed by intention;

assimilation, achieved by comprehension transformed by intention;

convergence, achieved through extensive transformation of comprehension;

accommodation, achieved through extensive transformation of apprehension.

“Each of us in a unique way develops a learning style that has some weak and some strong points. Evidence for the existence of such consistent unique learning styles can be found in the research of Kagan and Witkin (Kagan and Kogan, 1970). They find, in support of Piaget, that there is a general tendency to become more analytic and reflective with age, but that individual rankings within the population tested remain highly stable from early years to adulthood. Similar measures have been found for measures of introversion/extraversion.” (Kolb, 1984, p.77)

Kolb then links aspects of personality traits to embrace the learning styles of individuals by using the Jungian based model of Myers (1978).

Kolb's application of Jung's Personality style and Learning style

Table 3.3 Jung's Psychological Types (Kolb, 1984 p.80)

Mode of relation to the world	E EXTROVERT TYPE Orientated toward external world of other people and things.	I INTROVERT TYPE Oriented toward inner world of ideas and feelings
Mode of decision making	J JUDGING TYPE Emphasis on order through reaching decision and resolving issues.	P PERCEIVING TYPE Emphasis on gathering information and obtaining as much data as possible.
Mode of perceiving	S SENSING TYPE Emphasis on sense perception, on facts, details, and concrete events.	N INTUITION TYPE Emphasis on possibilities, imagination, meaning and seeing things as a whole.
Mode of judging	T THINKING TYPE Emphasis on analysis, using logic and rationality.	F FEELING TYPE Emphasis on human values, establishing personal friendships, decisions made mainly on beliefs and likes.

Kolb's view of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

Some caution is urged (Kolb, 1984, p.80) on looking at the correlations between the MBTI and LSI for two reasons:

• both the LSI and the MBTI instruments are based on self-analysis and report. Thus we are testing whether those who take the two tests agree with our predictions of the similarity between Jung's concepts and those of the experiential learning theory; we are not testing, except by inference, their actual behaviour.

• it is not clear how adequately the MBTI reflects Jung's theory. In particular, the items in the MBTI introversion/extraversion scale seem to be heavily weighted in favor of the American conception of the dimension – i.e. extraversion as social and interpersonal ease, and introversion as shyness and social awkwardness.

Margerison and Lewis (1979) investigated the relations between the LSI and MBTI scores. They found a significant correlation of 0.45 ($p < .01$) between the two sets of scores.

The relationships between the Jungian types and the learning styles are shown in Figure 3.2 below. The sensing type is associated with the accommodation learning style, and the intuitive type falls in the assimilative quadrant; the feeling personality type is divergent in learning style, and thinking types are convergent. These findings support the predictions made by Kolb;

there is a correspondence between the Jungian concepts of introversion and the experiential learning mode of reflective observation via intentional transformation, and between extraversion and active experimentation via extension. In addition, concrete experience and the apprehension process are clearly associated with both the sensing approach to perception and the feeling approach to judging. Abstract conceptualization and the comprehension process, on the other hand are related to the intuition approach to perceiving and the thinking approach to judging. (Kolb, 1984, p.79)

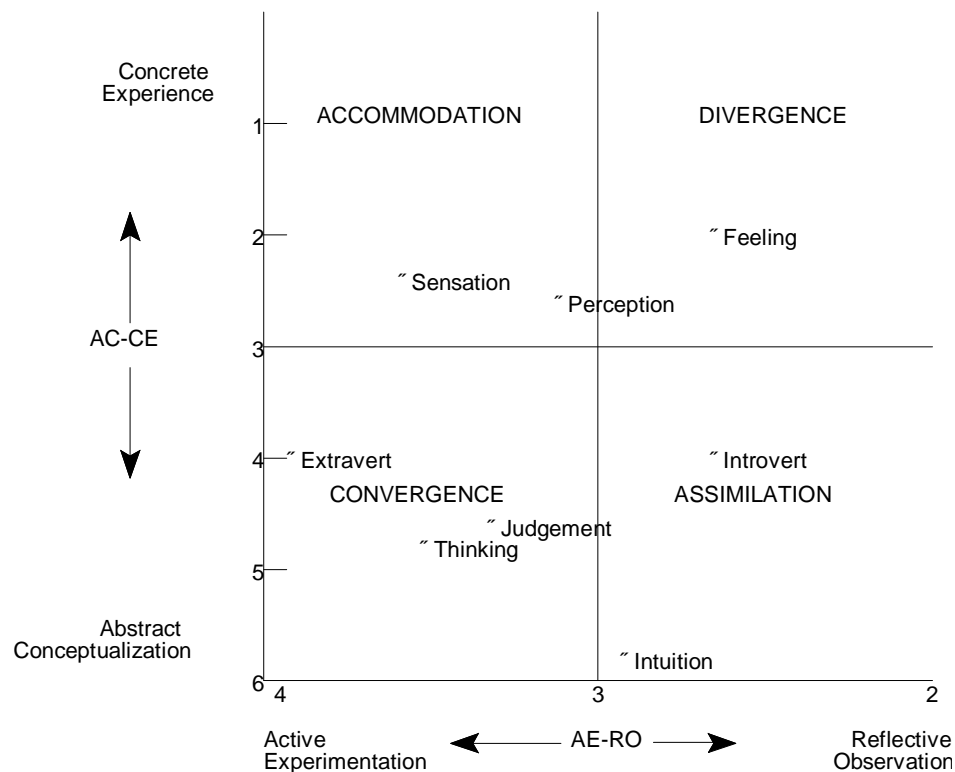


Figure 3.2 The relationships between the learning styles and the MBTI personality types.

Epistemological Theories

Kolb extends his thinking about learning style by considering how knowledge is created and recreated through learning from experience and the structure of knowledge. He compares the rationalist and empiricist philosophical views with the interactionist views. The former, i.e. the rationalist, view is that truth is discovered through logic and reason, whereas the empiricist sees knowledge and truth as an accumulation of sensory impressions but the mind makes no contribution of its own excepting recognition of the "substance" of these impressions. The interactionist view is that the mind prepossesses a structural machinery that enables it to interpret experience and to understand order and uniformity. "Truth in *critical idealism* (Kant) was the product of the interaction between the mind's forms and the material facts of sense experience."

Kolb believes that these philosophies of knowledge development have limitation in the formation of a sound basis for a theory of experiential learning and proposes a "dual-knowledge" approach. Though he tends towards a more interactionist philosophy he feels that the Piagetian view of interactionism is too rationalist in spirit by considering that sensations are only the starting point of knowing and that more emphasis is placed on the organization and transformation through which we construct reality. Kolb on the other hand believes that "apprehension" and "comprehension" should be given equal weight to come to a *transactionalist* view rather than an interactional one.

In describing this view he states, "...knowing by apprehension is here-and-now, ... continuously unfolding present movement ... wherein events are related via

synchronicity. Comprehension is by its very nature a record of the past that seeks to define the future; the concept of linear time is perhaps its most fundamental foundation, underlying all concept of causality.ö

The Experiential Learning Theory of Development

öThere is a quality of learning that cannot be ignored. It is assertive, forward-moving, and proactive. Learning is driven by curiosity about the here-and-now and anticipation of the future.ö (Kolb, op.cit. p.132).

öWithout denying the reality of biological maturation and developmental achievements, (that is, enduring cognitive structures that organize thought and action), the experiential learning theory of development focuses on the transaction between internal characteristics and external circumstances, between personal knowledge and social knowledge. it is the process of learning from experience that shapes and actualizes developmental potentialities. This learning is a social process; and thus, the course of individual development is shaped by the cultural system of social knowledge.ö (Kolb, op.cit p.133)

öThe way learning shapes the course of development can be described by the level of integrative complexity in the four learning modes ó affective complexity in concrete experience results in higher-order sentiments, perceptual complexity in reflective observation results in higher-order observations, symbolic complexity in abstract conceptualization results in higher-order concepts, and behavioural complexity in active experimentation results in higher-order actions.ö (p.140)

The 3D model describes a cone built on the circular 2D model (illustrated earlier).

The cone shape represents the increasing integration at the higher stages of development. öDevelopment on each dimension proceeds from a state of embeddedness, defensiveness, dependence, and reaction to (towards) a state of self-actualization, independence, proaction and self-direction.ö

Development is not seen to be linear, as in the Piagetian model, but dependent on external experiences as well as the internal transformation of previous experiences.

Development along the four complexity dimensions of the Kolb model may proceed at different rates but through three proposed stages:

Stage one ó Acquisition (birth to adolescence) ó development at this stage is marked by the gradual emergence of internalized structures that allow the child to gain a sense of self that is separate and distinct from the surrounding environment.

Stage two ó Specialization (late adolescence to early adulthood) ó at this stage the person achieves a sense of individuality through the acquisition of a specialized adaptive competence in dealing with demands of a chosen "career"

Stage three ó Integration (adulthood) ó the person resolves the conflict between needs of self and needs of society in the drive for fulfilment, or "individuation" as Jung describes it.

The table on the next page (Table 3:4) sets out Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory of Development Levels of Adaptation and the Structure of Consciousness. (Kolb, D.A. (1984)

Table 3:4 Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory of Development Levels of Adaptation and the Structure of Consciousness

Developmental stage of maturation	Acquisition	Specialization	Integration
Level of Adaptation	Performance	Learning	Development
Structure of consciousness:	Registrative	Interpretative	Integrative
Extension in time	seconds, minutes, hours	days, weeks, months	years, decades, lifetimes
Extension in life space:	responses, acts, tasks	projects, jobs, occupations	careers, lives, generations
Feedback structure	Goal directed first-order feedback to achieve goals	Learning how to learn; 2nd-order feedback to change goals & strategies	Consciousness/integrity; 3rd-order feedback to link goals to life purpose
Hierarchic integration of learning modes:	Many differentiated structures with low integration between them	Fewer but larger specialized structures; high integration within structures; low integration between structures	Development of complementary specialized structures; high integration between structures
Concrete experience. affective complexity via apprehension	Direct sensing and feeling To Continuity of sensation and feeling. emergence of enduring sentiments	Self-aware system of sentiments and values to Differentiating self & others' sentiments and values	Relativistic appreciation of value systems to Value commitment within relativism
Reflective observation. Perceptual complexity via intension	Attention to Watching. development of contiguous images	Reflection; giving observations personal meaning to Creating alternative meaning and observation schemes	Relativistic appreciation of different meaning schemes & points of view to Intuition; choosing meaningful perspectives
Abstract conceptualization. Symbolic complexity via comprehension	Recognizing; enactive thought To Object constancy; iconic+thought	Concrete symbolic operations to Formal hypothetico-deductive reasoning	Attaching concrete meanings to symbol systems to Finding and solving meaningful problems
Active experimentation. Behavioural complexity via extension	Responding to circumstance To Doing; short-range intentional acts toward goals	Achieving; development of clear goals and longer range to Risk taking; making goal & strategy tradeoffs	Experimental hypothesis testing; change goals & strategies based on results to Responsible action; accepting unknown emergent reality

Definitions of some of the terms used are given below:

- intention** (used to mean intent, purpose, meaning) the transformation of ideas through focusing on different characteristics/attributes of concrete experiences, internal reasoning and abstraction, (in Piagetian terms ó intellectual aspects of thought that transform ideas through internalized actions or systems of transformation.)
- extension** the transformation of ideas to form new ideas through action, (in Piagetian terms ó operative thought through behavioural actions that transform objects or state.)
- In Jungian terms Kolb considers that ðthe transformation dimension is perhaps best described by the concepts of introversion (intension) and extraversion (extension).ö In this proposal he suggests that introverts tend to put the psychological processes linked to self and subjective thinking above objective reality.

The origins and derivation of the Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ)

The model of learning processes proposed by Kolb has been adapted for practical use in the commercial field to help with the assessment and development of managers to understand their own preferences for learning; particularly those who also have a training role. Peter Honey and Alan Mumford have adapted the Kolb model, entitled, ðthe learning cycleð and used it as a basis for training managers in self-development and team development by looking at their strengths and weaknesses based on their learning styles. The assessment instrument developed for identifying ðlearning styleð the Learning Styles Questionnaire, is illustrated and described below.

The Learning Cycle model – Honey and Mumford

It is the pragmatic use of these various models of learning, highlighted above, that forms the basis of Peter Honey and Alan Mumfordðs work on ðlearning styleð Their work has focused particularly on training and training design for managers. The ðLearning Styles Questionnaireð published in 1982, was developed not only as an instrument for analysing the learning preferences of individuals, but also as a tool that managers could use for self development and developing an awareness of the learning

and development needs of others with whom they work.

Although the Learning Cycle model was adapted from the Kolb model of experiential learning, it emphasises the authors' belief that learning, in a wholistic sense, must involve all the stages in the cycle to be effective. Whereas the developmental models describe the stages of cognitive thought processes from child to adult, the learning cycle model encapsulates a view of how learning, at any stage of development, takes place. The learning cycle model, illustrated below, describes the learning process as having four principal stages, namely 'having an experience', 'reviewing the experience', 'drawing conclusions from the experience' and 'planning the next steps'. These stages are seen to be the key to effective learning and the authors suggest that over emphasis, or under emphasis, of any of these stages would lead to less effective learning.

In parallel with this model of learning, Honey and Mumford propose that individuals have different levels of preference for each of the learning stages and the LSQ instrument is designed to identify the levels of preference on the four learning style types 'activist', 'reflector', 'theorist' and 'pragmatist'. For example, some individuals may prefer a great deal of active experience but dislike having time to reflect on the experiences, whilst others may react in quite the opposite way.

The four main styles are described in terms of how they prefer to learn:

Activists will learn best from activities where they can engross themselves in short here-and-now activities such as business games and competitive teamwork; they learn less from activities where a passive role is required,

e.g. listening to lectures, reading or they are required to listen to statements of theoretical explanation.

Reflectors learn best from activities where they are able to stand back from events and listen and observe; where they are asked to produce carefully considered analyses and reports; where they learn less from situations that require action without planning or there are worries about time pressures or being rushed from one activity to another.

Theorists learn best from activities where what is being offered is part of a system, model, concept or theory; they learn less from unstructured activities where ambiguity and uncertainty are great; where they feel themselves out of tune with other participants.

Pragmatists learn best from activities where there is an obvious link between the subject-matter and the problem or opportunity on the job; they learn less well when the activity seems distant from reality

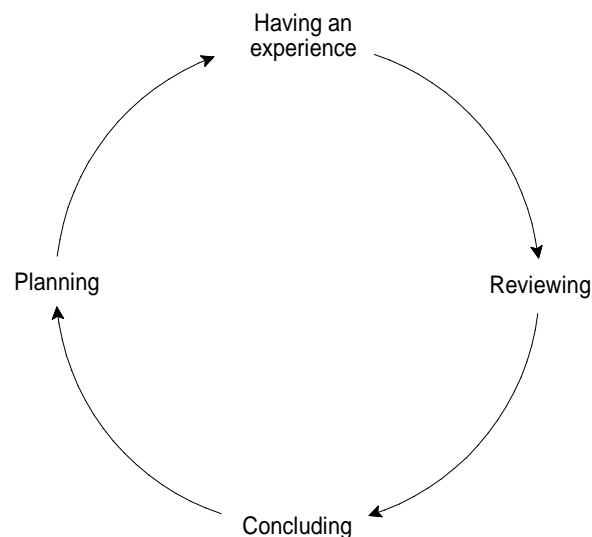


Figure 3:3 The Learning Cycle – Honey and Mumford (1982)

Examples of this model in action (Mumford, 1995) describe how some of the

management training techniques, e.g. business games and outdoor training, focus on the *having an experience* stage; whereas lectures and book learning are more closely aligned to delivering *conclusions* ó concepts, structure, models. The model that Honey and Mumford (1982) propose is in response to their belief that many training methods do not provide learning experiences that are balanced. There is frequently too much emphasis on *activity* without providing opportunities to *reflect* and *draw conclusions* from the learning experiences.

The LSQ instrument itself samples preferences for learning rather than the processes. It thus represents an instrument that samples the interface between the individual and the external 'environment', i.e. the outer layer of the 'onion model'.

The Cognitive Styles Analysis

The Cognitive Styles Analysis (Riding, 1990) samples the processing activities that 'mediate' between the primary sources, (remembered knowledge, memory, personality sources, and gender) and the cognitive inputs form and outputs to the external world. In terms of the 'onion' model this represents the middle layer activity where the external stimuli are coded for storing in memory.

The research background to this instrument has been discussed in the section on cognitive styles. Principally, the instrument assesses the degree to which an individual views things 'wholistically' or 'analytically' using a series of computer presented diagrams which the subject has to respond. The diagrams are in their nature similar to those in the Embedded Figures Test and require the subject to 'disembed' the figures to respond by pressing one of the keys on the computer keyboard.

The subject also has to respond to a series of verbally presented statements that require 'verbal' or 'imagery' processing in order to respond. The ratios of response times is calculated by the software to indicate to the subject whether they tend to be 'wholist' or 'analytic', 'verbaliser' or 'imager', or somewhere in between.

The CSA instrument has been designed in such a way that its method of data collection avoids many of the criticisms levelled at other instruments purporting to measure cognitive style.

Summary

In this chapter the background has covered a wide area of research in the fields of cognitive and learning style, and personality measures.

One of the main problem areas in this study has been the proliferation of construct labels and definitions used in the quoted research studies. It would appear that seeking stable anchoring points can only be gained through careful study of the research methodologies used to derive the constructs.

The many labels used for naming the constructs in measures of personality, cognitive and learning styles are examined in order to identify common factors amongst the instruments used in research studies. The problems of interpretation are inconclusive except where correlational studies have identified relationships between the factors.

The aspects of 'style' appear to be linked with the -middleølayer, which comprises the information processing aspects of cognitive functioning. The inner -layerø of the 'onion' model comprising the neurophysiological and personality factors are deemed to be the most stable aspects, which are least susceptible to any influences to change them.

The efficiency of processing is influenced by both the neurological and personality factors as well as the external and perceptual factors and conditions; i.e. the inputs. However, the observable behaviours are in effect only the outward manifestations of the more inner processes and personality influences.

The various models of learning and thinking outlined in the previous chapter have

been brought together in the experiential learning model described by Kolb. This model attempts to look at learning as a continuously growing process involving interaction with the learning environment, reflecting on the observations, drawing conclusions and establishing concepts and principles followed by further action based on the new knowledge.

The Kolb model of learning was then adapted by Honey and Mumford in which they used the four aspects in the experiential learning cycle as a basis for their own model of learning styles. The Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ) was devised to assess the degree to which individuals tend to be active learners, or reflectors, theorists or pragmatists. In terms of the onion model this instrument assesses the outer layer of functioning.

In contrast to examining the surface aspects of learning styles, the Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA) assesses style at a deeper level since it uses processing behaviour as its measure. The derivation of the instrument is based on the premise that an individual's cognitive processing time is relatively longer or shorter in a consistent way according to whether they are wholists or analysts, verbalisers or imagers.

In the next chapters the data collected from samples of Fire Service College students will be analysed in the hope that some further clarity will be gained about the nature of learning style, cognitive style and their relationships with preferences for methods of delivery.

CHAPTER 4

Research methodology

Overview

This chapter introduces the context in which the research study was carried out and the methods used to gather the data.

The research examines possible relationships between how students say they prefer to learn, i.e. their own learning style (as sampled by the Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ) ó Honey and Mumford) and their cognitive style (as sampled by the Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA) ó Riding). The possible use of these instruments for matching training delivery systems to preferred styles will be considered in a later chapter.

The data gathered during this research was examined to see whether the instruments used could yield useful information about the factors and relationships that could be of use to future course designers when planning or redesigning courses at the College.

Research methodology

Research sample

In Chapter 1, details were given about the Fire Service College, its organization and the progression training programme structure. The sample chosen for the research study comprised students who were aspiring to take on more senior roles within the fire service and who would have responsibility within a brigade division, i.e. having a management function across a number of fire stations within a local authority brigade.

The particular students that formed the research sample were attending the Divisional Command course. There is no formal selection procedure for this course, unlike the Brigade Command Course, but they are recommended by the chief officer of their brigade as having the potential for a senior officer role. There are no other formal assessments as entry qualifications other than having successfully completed the earlier progression courses run by the College that were mentioned above. There is also no formal assessment at the end of the course other than that they have to produce a project report, the Management Study Project. A considerable amount of work is required to complete this project and students are invited to submit them for a City & Guilds Senior Awards to obtain either the Licentiate or Graduate qualifications; exceptional projects may be submitted for the Members level, but the more senior Brigade Command students are recommended to apply at this level. The Divisional Command students' projects are expected to qualify at least at Licentiate level. These projects are also externally examined by staff at Coventry University.

Research rationale

Before making any recommendations about changing and optimising training delivery systems (as described in Chapter 1), it was felt that some analysis of the existing course delivery practices should be carried out; and also to look at students' impressions of them. This information would then be of some assistance to future course design teams in helping them to select the way courses are presented to students.

In this study, there is an intention to analyse the learning styles and cognitive styles of students together with data about their preferences so that some evidence about course delivery could be considered when designing new courses.

During the last seven years, since joining the staff of the Fire Service College, only one study of students' learning style has been carried out. This earlier study of the learning styles of Fire Service College students (Shevels, 1996) identified some differences between the learning styles of junior officers as compared with those of more senior officers. This study used the *Learning Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ of Honey and Mumford) as the main data gathering instrument. The findings suggested that more junior officers tended to be more activist and therefore would tend to prefer a more active style of approach to learning as compared with their more senior officer colleagues, who appeared to be more interested in reflecting on the theory and practical application of what they were learning.

In this earlier research there was no other indicator as to what type of learning was favoured by these 'activists' or the more 'reflective' 'pragmatist' senior officers other than by inference from the LSQ handbook.

This current research will use additional data to that used in the previous research in order to help inform those involved in designing future courses. The LSQ and CSA instruments will be used as measures of learning style and cognitive style processes respectively, together with a survey of current preferences for training delivery methods used on existing courses. The data gathered is used in an exploratory study to determine how far these instruments can be used as an indicator to help optimise the training of students by using their preferred ways of learning.

At present, a large amount of teaching delivery takes place in lecture rooms in much the same way as in other academic institutions. The general mode of information transfer is by 'interactive lecture' which is predominantly teacher directed with a minimum of student-teacher interaction. Frequent use is made of the overhead projector on which the main points are listed, almost as a lesson plan or prompt. 'Death by a 1,000 overheads' has been a frequent criticism and this is gradually being replaced by a computer generated equivalent.

The question that arose, and prompted the current research, was, "How effective are these methods of course delivery for fire officers?" A supplementary question was, "Do these methods suit all student officers?"

Within the timescale of this research it has been impossible to answer both these questions thoroughly. Access to the full range of students has not been possible due to the complexities of the training programme and the limited amounts of time during which students had access to computer facilities; and hence access to the CSA software.

The only students who consistently had the necessary access to computers as part of their course, and who also had course components on personnel selection, were the Divisional Command Course (DCC) students. These students, as has been explained above, were at, or preparing for, relatively senior levels of command. Unfortunately, they do not therefore represent the much wider range of students attending College courses. Whether or not their general characteristics and preferences are representative of fire officers as a whole, can only be ascertained by a more extensive study.

In this research, the patterns of cognitive style of individual students at the Fire Service College will be examined, as sampled by the CSA instrument software. Following from this, it is proposed to look at how the varying types of cognitive style may, or may not, relate to students' different preferences for modes of teaching delivery and learning. A similar analysis, using the Learning Styles Questionnaire (Honey and Mumford) and the mode of delivery preferences is also conducted.

Research into the field of how people learn is very complex and much of it tends to focus on small areas of learning in order that the number of variables are reduced and

can be managed. Similarly, the relationships between cognitive style and ways of learning may not have a simple association since what has to be learned may in some ways be restricted by the ways in which it can be learned; such as the '*ways of knowing*' described by Bruner (1964), referred to earlier. For example the teaching of a particular topic may involve a number of concepts each of which involve different processes of learning. The learning process as a whole is probably greater than the sum of the individual parts, i.e. the whole learning experience is probably of greater value to the learner than the sum of individual learning episodes, which are sometimes the subject of research and probably focus on what can be more easily measured.

In conducting this research, this is the dilemma, whether to look at the situation ~~holistically~~ or ~~analytically~~ or both.

Previous surveys – Task Analyses

Apart from the current research, The results of some previous analysis work will help to build up a profile of the target population at the College. An analysis of the tasks and types of work done by fire service personnel has been carried out at the Fire Service College (Sudbury Report 1992) and also by the Emergency Fire Service Lead Body in its compilation of competence standards.

Some further information about fire service personnel, in particular students who had attended College Divisional Command courses over the previous 10 years, became available. In contrast to the Sudbury Report, which looked at the roles fulfilled by fire service officers, the new information that came to hand provided an analysis of the personnel who filled these roles. The instrument used to gather this information was the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (1962). Information from this source provided a contrasting view of the target group going back a number of years. A parallel study of MBTI data and the instruments used in the current study was not possible since MBTI data ceased to be collected a year or two prior to this study.

An interesting link appeared to exist between what the MBTI assessed and what the CSA and LSQ measured in that Myers and Myers (1995, pp. 1396147) link their personality 'types' with learning styles. In linking the task analysis, referred to above, and personality types, many of the tasks identified in the task analysis require *sensory* inputs rather than *intuitive* inputs (in Myers-Briggs Type Indicator terms). In the fire service roles there also appears to be a high level of demand in processing and analysing large amounts of information when dealing with an incident.

The student MBTI data collected between 1980 and 1990 are illustrated in Table 1, which shows the distribution of Divisional Command Course (DCC) students attending the Fire Service College.

Table 1: MBTI percentage distribution

< Sensing – Intuition >				
	ST Sensing. Thinking	SF Sensing–Feeling	NF Intuition–Feeling	NT Intuition–Thinking
IJ	ISTJ 67 23.6%	ISFJ 10 3.5%	INFJ 8 2.8%	INTJ 30 10.6%
IP	ISTP 17 5.9%	ISFP 4 1.4%	INFP 5 1.8%	INTP 17 5.9%
EP	ESTP 12 4.2%	ESFP 2 0.7%	ENFP 9 3.2%	ENTP 16 5.6%
EJ	ESTJ 51 18.0%	ESFJ 9 3.2%	ENFJ 3 1.1%	ENTJ 24 8.5%

Sample size = 284

I = Introvert J = Judging S = Sensing N = Intuition
E = Extrovert P = Perceiving T = Thinking F = Feeling

The distribution indicates a large proportion of fire service officers whose scores lie in the 66TJ areas of the MBTI analysis. Of these, a larger proportion lie in the 66STJ areas, i.e. they would tend to rely on their senses rather than their intuition; this would also seem to be congruent with the job roles. The distribution of –introvertsø and –extrovertsø is fairly equally balanced with a couple of percentage points in favour of the –introvertsø

Some of the type descriptors used in the Cognitive Styles Analysis also appear in the MBTI above. For example, some parallel instances are taken from the MBTI and the CSA manuals as illustrations:

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator	Cognitive Styles Analysis
Extroverted types ó relaxed, confident, outwardly directed, people of action, and more at home with people and things.	Wholist style ó socially informal and relaxed, tend to be extroverted, social, lively and outgoing, prefer to be with other people and enjoy group activity.
Introverted types ó reserved, inwardly directed, real world is the world of ideas and understanding, more at home in the world of ideas than in the world of people and things.	Analytic style ó socially restrained and formal, socially unaware, withdrawn and introverted, often keep thought private and not say what is felt very readily.
Feeling types ó contribute by their loyal support, regarded as good by society, thinking as others think believing them to be right.	Wholist-Verbaliser type ó caring and responsive to the needs of others, limitation of not being discerning and of being swayed to and fro by passing fashions, flexible and will be happy to fit in with the plans of others.

In another research example, Furnham, et al (1997) reports that the EPP 'extrovert' introvert dimension correlates negatively with the Myers-Briggs (MBTI) 'extrovert' introvert dimension ($r = -0.53$ $p < 0.001$). Further more they both correlate positively with the 'activist' dimension of the LSQ ($r = 0.47$ $p < 0.001$). Some of the data collected in the current research will be examined to see if there are any similar associations.

This poses a major question mentioned earlier, namely, "Are the constructs used in these instruments identical, similar or dissimilar?" Concern is also expressed by Riding and Rayner (1999) that the proliferation of labels, which appear to overlap the areas of 'ability' and 'personality', have caused confusion and some criticism of

research into cognitive style and learning styles. The present research aims to add another piece of the picture into the jig-saw.

Data gathering : Instruments used

Learning Styles Questionnaire (Honey and Mumford)

The Learning Styles Questionnaire (1986 edition) has been in existence since 1982 and has been widely used in a variety of business contexts to identify individuals' learning styles. The questionnaire is based on theories developed from the action research model of Lewin (1946), the experiential learning cycle model of Kolb, Rubin and McIntyre (1974) and Kolb's Learning Styles Inventory (1976, 1981).

The instrument is a binary forced-choice questionnaire comprising 80 statements to which subjects are asked to 'agree' or 'disagree' with each statement as individual students perceive them to apply themselves. Each statement represents a behaviour or preference that belongs to, or is associated with, one of the four learning style types; 'activist', 'reflector', 'theorist' and 'pragmatist'. The designation of type is not made explicit to the subject and the item types are randomly distributed. The subject places a tick in the box for each statement that applies (agrees), or a cross or no mark for those statements that do not apply (disagrees).

Scoring is a simple process of marking a pre-prepared form on which the number of each questionnaire statement is listed. The question number is assigned to one of four columns, representing each of the four learning types, thus making total scoring easier. The number of statements that apply in each type column are totalled to yield a score on each of the four learning styles. The scoring is therefore objective and

requires no specific training. The scores are then cross-referenced with the standardised scoring grid to yield a five-point rating of preference; 'very strong', 'strong', 'moderate', 'low' and 'very low'. Scores can also be plotted on a four-point graph to produce a pictorial profile of strengths and weaknesses relating to the learning types.

The authors propose that the instrument can be used as a diagnostic tool for developing individuals and strengthening some of their weaker strategies for learning. However, some understanding of the principles underlying the instrument is required if used for counselling and making recommendations to subjects.

All students attending the Divisional Command Course are asked in their course joining instructions to complete the LSQ (Honey and Mumford) questionnaire prior to attendance. The returns were analysed before the course commenced and the results sent to the course tutors. Apart from being used in the current research, the data is principally used by the tutors to set up the course syndicate groupings. Data collected from eight recent cohorts of students has been used in this current research. *(A more comprehensive sample data of 15 cohorts is given in Appendix 2).*

Cognitive Styles Analysis (Riding)

The 'Cognitive Styles Analysis'(CSA) was developed at Birmingham University's Centre for Assessment and Evaluation Research by Dr. R. Riding. This instrument was developed in 1992 and has been the subject of considerable research study with

organizations ó such as British Gas, British Telecom and others ó through funding from the Department of Employment and its successor.

The CSA instrument is computer (PC) presented and comprises two main sections; firstly a set of 48 questions that sample the verbalizer and imager processes, and secondly a set of 40 diagrammatic problems that sample wholistic and analytic processing. The response mode is made simply by pressing one of two designated keys on the keyboard to indicate True or False to each question.

The questions related to the verbal aspect on the verbalóimagery dimension are straightforward statements that sample a subject's capacity to recognize category similarity, or difference, between pairs of concepts. The statements are in the form, 'X and Y are the same type' to which the response is either true or false; indicated by pressing the appropriate key. The set of questions related the imager style are based primarily on whether a subject can visualize the colour similarity or difference between two named objects. The questions of this type are written in the form 'X and Y are the same colour. Similarly the response is either true or false.

The simplicity of the questions is both its strong point and yet a weak point as perceived by the students that we gave the CSA to. The major strong point is that the CSA can be used with a wide age range of subjects and also that there are minimal problems in interpreting and comprehending the questions thus reducing 'noise' related to aspects of comprehension not related to the specific aspects under test.

The set of problem questions designed to sample wholisticóanalytic processing are

derived from patterns similar to those in the Group Embedded Figures test used for assessing field-dependent and field-independent abilities. The question problems sample a subject's ability to disembed a simple shape from a more complex design.

The CSA software analyses the response patterns and produces two ratio values, one the wholist-analytic dimension and the second for the verbalizer-imager dimension. According to the values the subject is allocated to one of nine main CSA types; Wholist-Intermediate-Analytic on the WA dimension, and Verbalizer-Bimodal-Imager on the VI dimension.

Comparison of the instruments

These two instruments function in very different ways. The LSQ scores depend on subjects responding to the statements on the day and how they were feeling about the statements. The results obtained from the questionnaire therefore sample the surface elements of conscious preferences. The processing required to respond to the questionnaire is self-questioning, "Does this statement apply to me?" for each of the 80 questions.

Like many other similar questionnaires, it is possible that the response is influenced by one's mood, length of time to respond, and thoughts about "what does the statement mean by this?" and "how does the data collector want me to respond to this statement?" The result therefore probably contains an element of how the subject, in some cases, wishes to be perceived rather than an objective measure their true learning preferences.

The CSA, on the other hand, is designed to sample more of the inner processing aspects of the mind (Riding and Cheema, 1991) rather than the surface and conscious aspects as sampled by the LSQ. Since the content of the questions in the CSA is not intellectually taxing, the majority of subjects would not have any difficulty in responding (Riding and Rayner, 1998).

This simplicity of the 'verbaliser' and 'imager' questions was perceived as major weak point by the DCC students, who are relatively sophisticated test takers having had experience of other personality instruments, and this, in the students' view, detracted from the CSA's face validity. The lack of 'challenge' appeared to affect some students in taking the instrument seriously. However, the 'wholist' and 'analytic' questions in the CSA instrument appeared to the DCC students more like some of the non-verbal items they had experienced during their selection process to join the fire service. So, in terms of face validity there was less scepticism.

Sufficient information was provided for students to be disabused on this matter by explaining that the subtlety of the instrument lay in the computer analysis of the responses without giving away details of the mechanics of how it functioned.

The CSA software (experimental version) stores the subject's responses in a data file, which can be read through a normal wordprocessor. The data can be examined for patterns of responding that indicate whether a subject has taken the test seriously or has responded erratically. For example, a consistent pattern of short response times together with a large number of incorrect responses were usually the result of fast

repeated key pressing. Sets of data that showed suspect response patterns were disregarded for the purposes of this research.

The interface design and format of the CSA instrument enables it to be used by adults, as well as by children from about the age of eight or nine. It was therefore found by the subjects in the sample to be easy to use.

Teaching and Learning Preferences Survey

The third aspect of data gathering for this research used a rating questionnaire. This was compiled specifically for this research and lists 14 commonly used delivery methods on the College's teaching programme. The focus of this data gathering is on students' preferred learning modes; this looks particularly at the acquisition of knowledge and experience. The practical exercises that take place on the College's fireground have not been included in this research since this aspect of training focuses on the application of knowledge and experience (expressive behaviours) and would therefore need to be the subject of a separate research study.

The questionnaire was derived from a small pilot study using repertory grid analysis, described below, and subjects were asked to indicate their preferences for each of the 14 delivery methods on a five-point scale (Strong dislike, Dislike, No particular preference, Moderate preference, Strong preference). At the same time they were also asked to indicate on a three-point scale how helpful each delivery method was for their own learning, (Very little help, Quite helpful, Very helpful).

Methodology

A pilot study using Repertory Grid analysis

The initial pilot study aimed at identifying the type of questionnaire content that could be used to gather data about students' preferences for acquiring knowledge and skills. The process involved a small number of Fire Service College students who were interviewed informally and asked to generate constructs related to various types of course delivery methods and how they felt that they were helpful to their learning. For this study a limited number of elements were included in the construct elicitation process and represented a sample of six teaching delivery modes used at the Fire Service College. The six elements used were as follows:

- A. Lecture
- B. Demonstration
- C. Discussion
- D. Practical/simulation
- E. Video/multimedia
- F. Study books

The response forms given to the students provided space for ten forced/random selection of elements, e.g., DEF, ACF, BDE, etc. Students were asked to provide a word or phrase that stated how one of the three elements was seen to be different from the other two. The word/phrase elicited was then written down in the column marked *single description*. Students were then asked to supply a word or phrase with an opposite meaning that could apply to the other two elements; this would

supply the opposite pole of the bipolar construct. Students were asked to repeat this process by eliciting constructs for the list of other groups of three elements.

Respondees were asked to keep supplying words or phrases (as constructs) and to avoid repeating any of those previously chosen, until they felt that they could not think of any more. In the sample of students the number of constructs supplied seemed to dry up after about seven pairs had been elicited.

The second part of the activity required students to mark with a tick each of their elicited constructs to show which construct pole they thought to be more helpful for their learning.

Finally, they were asked to rank the elements on each bipolar construct, using the range 1-6 according to how well each element (delivery mode) tended towards each construct. The rating 1 was given to the element that was best described by the preferred (i.e. ticked) construct; rating 6 given to the least.

The data from the forms were entered into the CIRCUMGRIDS III software to attempt to identify factors that could explain individual preferences.

The constructs that emerged from the analysis fell into the following main categories:

Practical	–	Mental
physical		verbal
hands-on		non-practical
practical learning		no touching
Participative	–	Passive
interaction		no feedback
open		closed
reciprocal		single
activity		lethargy
free to act		follow correct procedure
Visual	–	Non-visual
understandable		incongruous
clear		vague

From the information gained in this pilot exercise, it was decided that a short questionnaire should be constructed that incorporated a larger number of training delivery methods that covered these constructs, i.e. the types of delivery modes. The fourteen selected items include aspects of learning and teaching delivery such as: verbal, still and motion visuals, practical activities, private study, discussion and didactic modes.

Although one cannot be certain that an individual's conceptualising of each delivery type will be identical to another's, certain assumptions had to be made. In the case of each of the delivery modes included on the response form, the following definitions were provided. These are based on the common usage within the Fire Service College.

Every session taught on the College programme is covered by a Directing Staff Brief (known as a DSBrief). The definitions of the delivery modes included on the questionnaire are those used on the DSBrief and the responses given should therefore reflect this common usage. But, in this method of research data gathering, one cannot assume that responses are underpinned by identical conceptualisation of the delivery method as perceived by subjects in the research sample. The purpose of the DSBrief, which is for teaching staff use, is to provide a specification for each session and includes the following details:

1. *Title of the session,*
2. *Study area aim* (A general aim for a series of sessions on a particular study area)
3. *Topic Aim* (An aim for the particular topic area)
4. *Terminal Objective* (An operational objective as to what the student should be able to do at the end of the session).
5. *Enabling Objectives* (A series of milestone objectives to be achieved by the student during the session).
6. *Assessment* (A brief description of the assessment method used to assess students' achievements).

7. *Duration* (The length of the session, i.e. the number of timetable periods required).
8. *Method* (The predominant delivery mode(s) used during the session).
9. *Resources* (The AV equipment and reference sources, including course materials, required).
10. *Conduct of the Session* (A brief outline lesson plan for the session).
11. *References* (Other support materials to be read or used in conjunction with the session's teaching).

A more detailed definition of the delivery modes, as used on the Preferences Questionnaire, are given below to assist understanding:

Listening to the lecturer talking ó this includes the oral dissemination of information by the presenter/lecturer, but excludes questioning and answering, use of visual materials and other interactive methods. Communication is essentially one-way.

Looking at pictures/diagrams illustrating the concepts and principles to be learned ó this includes any non-moving illustrative material including mounted charts, overhead transparencies of diagrams and charts, or similar materials that are mainly non-text in nature.

Watching 35mm slides, whilst listening to a commentary ó a particular mode of delivery used within the College where a carousel of slides is activated by a tape containing an accompanying commentary; a predominantly visual and oral presentation.

Watching video or film ó a moving visual image presentation usually with an oral commentary.

Demonstration using equipment/floorplans ó this mode of delivery would include laboratory demonstrations of chemical reactions, using a floor-plan model of an incident to plan the tactics of an operation and demonstrations of breathing apparatus servicing and assembly.

Reading through course notes or books ó these would include College produced notes to accompany a session as well as textbooks on the relevant topic. Excluded are materials designed for independent learning, (see below).

Writing notes and exercises about the topic ó this would include any activity during a session that require a written response.

Discussion with a tutor ó this includes sessions, including ~~interactive~~lectures, that involve some form of verbal interaction with a tutor, discussion groups and tutorials.

Discussion with colleagues ó this includes sessions that involve a large degree of interaction between fellow students, with or without the presence of a tutor, this would include syndicate groups.

Working on simulated exercises/case studies ó these activities, commonly known as ~~desk-top~~exercises or simulations, can be carried out by individuals alone or as a small syndicate group.

Role play exercises ó these are frequently held as part of a 'media response' module but can include situations officers might find themselves involved with during their duties. Many of these exercises are held in a TV studio so that video debriefing can be undertaken. (see below).

Debriefing practical exercises using video ó practical exercises, including role play, are videoed either in a TV studio or on a portable camcorder system, so that those taking part can see themselves in action and group discussions evaluate their performance.

Library study and researching information ó these are opportunities for self-directed study as part of a project or an assignment.

Using learning materials for study purposes ó these are materials designed for independent learning (e.g. distance learning) and require little, if any, external tutor support.

The questionnaires designed for the research were then distributed to DCC students with the initial instructions to complete them for a particular session; as though for an evaluation of the session. Unfortunately, because many of the sessions did not include some of the listed delivery methods, this led to problems when analysing the data due to some delivery elements being omitted. Later on in the data gathering process, the instructions on the questionnaire were modified requesting that responses should be made to each of the 14 teaching delivery items whether or not particular delivery

modes were used at the time of completion and thus to base their preferences on a wider range of personal experiences, including attendance at previous courses.

The general form for the final version of the questionnaire was essentially the same as the trial version, i.e. there was a five-point rating scale for 'preferences' and a three-point scale for indicating how 'helpful' the delivery mode was for their own learning.

(See Appendix 1)

The data from each of the three instruments – CSA, LSQ and Preferences Questionnaire – were entered into spreadsheets for subsequent visual analysis. Some formulae were devised to summarize the data, as well as using some of the in-built statistical functions within the spreadsheet software. The data was also prepared for entry into the SPSS computer package for a correlational and factor analysis to be carried out.

The design and structure of the spreadsheets will be described below.

Spreadsheet design

Several spreadsheets were produced to provide data for analysis. Initially all the data from the LSQ questionnaires, the CSA ratio scores and the Preferences Questionnaire were all entered into a spreadsheet, one for each course cohort; e.g. DCC0196.XLS to DCC0297.XLS representing courses DCC 01/1996 to DCC 02/1998 – usually there are four courses of this type each year. *(See Appendices 2 and 3)*

The data from each of these spreadsheets were copied into a composite sheet, DCCSACS2.XLS that was also copied on to a second sheet within the file. The two

sheets were sorted in different ways; the first was sorted by ascending order of WA ratio scores, the second sheet was sorted by VI scores in a similar manner. A number of parallel operations were then programmed into each of the sheets to produce means and standard deviations on each of the delivery preferences.

The preference statistics were then grouped according to their factor groupings (identified in the factor analysis). The scores on the WA and VI dimensions were then sub-divided into four equal groups representing Hi-wholists, Moderate-wholists, Moderate-analysts and Hi-analysts. This was also done for the data on the verbal imagery worksheet. From this arrangement it was possible to compare the preference scores with the WA and VI scores.

The second spreadsheet DCCLSQPQ.XLS used the same data set but was sorted on four worksheets within the file, each sheet being sorted (rank ordered by score) according to the LSQ dimensions of activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist. Similar calculations were performed on this data so that preferences could be compared with LSQ data.

The group of spreadsheets PREFDAT1.XLS to PREFDAT3.XLS contained all the data from the Preference Questionnaires. Only the third of these was used for a final analysis of the data, the other two were developmental trials. In this spreadsheet, the preference and helpfulness data was grouped according to both CSA type and LSQ type and was listed according to raw data and proportions.

In each of the spreadsheets, formulae were devised to provide descriptive statistics about the various data collected. The preference data was then summarized in spreadsheet DCCCSAC2.XLS. (*See Appendix 2*)

A further set of spreadsheets were compiled to analyse the CSA response time data.

The first group of spread sheets were used to organize the raw data from the CSA.DAT text (ASCII) files. This process involved a considerable amount of detailed checking to ensure that the correct data appeared in each column. Sheet CSASAMP1.XLS contained data from the first sample of FSC students. These students represented cohorts from several different courses other than the DCC, which was the main focus.

The data from second main sample were imported into CSASAMP2.XLS. This sheet contained a larger sample of data and was checked in the same way as CSASAMP1.XLS to ensure the integrity of the data. From this spreadsheet, a third one was produced, CSASAMP3.XLS, the only difference between this and its predecessor being that subjects that contained cells with missing data were removed from the sample.

The response time data in this latter spreadsheet was sorted and analysed by WA, VI ratio scores, and also LSQ scores. Calculations of means, standard deviations and correlations with factor groupings were also carried out. Due to the ultimate size of the spreadsheet, smaller versions, LSQTIME3.XLS to LSQTIME6.XLS, were created that represented data across a limited combination of scores, e.g. 'activist' by

WA and VI ratios. The summary of this data was collected in spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS. (See Appendix 3)

The final analysis method employed the SPSS software package into which the complete data set from the spreadsheet DCCSACS2.XLS was imported. This involved exporting the spreadsheet data as a text-file and ensuring the various columns of data coincided by identifying cells of zero data.

The following analyses were carried out using the SPSS:

1. A comparison of CSA and LSQ scores from the sample of DCC students at the FSC and a sample of HE students from another educational institution.
2. A '*Hierarchical Log Linear*' analysis of the data to assess levels of significance between the two sample groups FSC and Business Studies Students (BSS). The Hierarchical Log Linear function is a multiple Chi-square analysis used with non-parametric data.
3. Factor analysis (principal components) of the Preferences Questionnaire data. to identify simpler classifications for types of training delivery.
4. A factor analysis of the LSQ data to compare the present data set with previous research, which suggested that the LSQ model comprises two dimensions rather than four.
5. Analysis of variance between the factor preferences, the CSA and LSQ.

A thorough examination was carried out of the data contained in the spreadsheets and the SPSS analysis output, in order to explore any possible relationships or associations between cognitive and learning styles and delivery preferences. The findings will be described in the following chapters.

Summary

In this chapter the context of the research and the sample of subjects have been described.

The research sample was taken from groups of students who attended the Divisional Command Course (DCC), which is an intermediate level of command and the individuals attending will be prepared to take responsibility for a brigade division, i.e. covering a number of fire stations.

The rationale for the research was to examine three main factors; the learning style and cognitive style of the students and to sample their 'preferences' for different kinds of delivery.

The methodology of the data gathering involved the administration of the Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ) devised by Honey and Mumford, the Cognitive Styles Analysis (CSA) developed by Riding. There is a description of the derivation of a specially devised questionnaire to sample students' preferences for various training delivery methods. Problems in gathering the data are also described.

Finally, there is an account of how the data gathered from these instruments were analysed using both the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) together with specially prepared spreadsheets.

The analysis of this data is covered in the chapters that follow.

CHAPTER 5

Analysis of CSA and LSQ scores

Overview

This chapter is in three main parts. The first part describes the distribution scores from administrations of the CSA (Cognitive Styles Analysis) collected from the sample of Fire Service College students. The second part describes the findings from the LSQ (Learning Styles Questionnaire) data. In this part there is also a report of a factor analysis of the LSQ data and how it relates to previous similar studies. The third part looks at both the CSA and LSQ data to examine patterns of similarity and differences that emerge.

In all three parts, data from other research sample groups are compared to examine any patterns of similarity between different vocational groups. These include a survey of business studies students at an institution of higher education, a sample of students in further education and a sample of primary school children. The different cognitive style profiles of the groups as measured by the CSA instrument are compared to discover what inferences can be made about designing optimal learning situations.

Analysis of the distribution of CSA scores

The FSC sample characteristics

This part of the research study is based on data collected from a sample of students attending the Divisional Command Course (DCC). The College receives four (occasionally five) cohorts of students each year for Divisional Command training course; each cohort contains between 20 and 30 students. The current sample of data from students attending the DCC between 1995 and 1997 represents six cohorts of attendees (163 students), though sample sizes in the analyses vary from this due to random items of data missing from one of the three data gathering instruments. This sample data forms the main basis of the research.

A broader sample of students attending courses at the Fire Service College was also examined (see Chapter 7) but this focuses on the response times to items in the CSA data. Parallel data from the two instruments (CSA and LSQ) was not available from many of the students in this broader sample since the LSQ was not distributed to them as part of their course. Therefore, only data from DCC subjects from this broader sample were used in the analysis described in this chapter. Also, only subjects that provided parallel sets of data from both the CSA and LSQ are examined. Subjects who did not supply complete data sets were eliminated from this part of the research.

Students attending the Divisional Command course, which is of eleven weeks duration, study a wide range of topics all pertaining to the role of a Divisional Commander.

The particular topics included on the course that are relevant to this research are:

- Personal development, Understanding people ó a series of socio-psychological topics,
- Personnel selection, personnel management and deployment, training management.

The introduction to the Cognitive Styles Analysis software takes place during a course module on ‘personal awareness’, ‘personal development’ and ‘personnel selection’. Both the CSA and the LSQ are used as examples, amongst some others, of instruments that can be used by individuals for increasing their self-awareness and for analysing their own strengths and weaknesses particularly in the area of ‘learning to learn’ and in helping them to be aware of the learning processes and how they learn best.

The concept of cognitive style is introduced to the students as being a particular factor that can influence the way people learn. The constructs used in the CSA, ‘wholist’, ‘analyst’, ‘verbaliser’ and ‘imager’, are introduced to the students as part of a debrief of their own results after they have completed the CSA and refer to the handbook that accompanies. A similar debriefing is also given of their LSQ scores earlier in the course; the results of the LSQ having already been used to arrange the syndicate groupings.

After collecting data from a couple of DCC student cohorts, it appeared that they showed an atypical distribution of scores. A set of data collected previously from a sample of business studies students at another higher education institution was used in

order to provide a comparison. One of the main purposes for comparing this data was to add to the growing body of CSA data from different vocational groups that had already been collected and reported elsewhere (Riding and Rayner, 1998, p.134). Thus it was possible to examine cognitive style profile patterns associated with the different groups.

Results

The DCC students, having completed the CSA, were asked to record their results on a specially designed form. The information to be recorded by the students included both their WA and VI ratios as well as an indication of their CSA group category linked with the scores. The forms were then collected and this information was then keyed into a specially constructed spreadsheet designed to include both the CSA and LSQ data in addition to the responses supplied later in the Preferences Questionnaire. The relationships with the Preferences Questionnaire are analysed later in this thesis, (see Chapter 6). A correlation analysis between the CSA and the LSQ is given in more detail later in this chapter.

One of the first areas of analysis to be carried out was designed to confirm the view, Riding and Cheema (1991), that the Wholist-Analytic and Verbaliser-Imager dimensions are to be seen as independent of each other. This two dimensional model of cognitive style attempts to rationalise and synthesise a wider range of constructs that have been used in this field of research, examples of which were described in Chapter 1.

The model that underpins the CSA proposes that the two dimensions exhibit a low correlation and are thus independent of each other. The findings of this current study do in fact confirm these other research studies using this instrument in that the correlation between the dimensions was found to be $r = 0.04$. The other research findings that produced similar correlations include; Riding and Sadler-Smith (1992), $r = 0.05, 0.00$, and 0.04 ; Douglas and Riding (1993), $r = 0.07$, Riding and Douglas (1993), $r = 0.03$; Riding and Wigley (1996), $r = 0.04$. It therefore appears from the current sample that there is little relationship between the two dimensions.

Early trends observed during the data gathering stage suggested that the FSC students conformed to a profile that was not typical of what might be a broader sample ~~normal~~ distribution. The additional set of data, mentioned above, from another research sample has been used as a means of comparison. The second sample was taken from a group of HE Business Studies students. This group was generally younger and many of them were in the 18 to 30 year age range. The DCC students on the other hand were mainly in the 30 to 50 year age range. The distribution of both samples of students is shown in the table (Tables 5:1 and 5:2) below.

The Fire Service College students, and Business Studies Students, are tabulated within the nine-category CSA model as follows:

Table 5:1 The number, (and percentages in brackets) of the Fire Service College (DCC) samples of CSA types:

	Verbaliser	Bimodal	Imager	Totals
Analyst	30 (18.4%)	35 (21.4%)	43 (26.3%)	108 (68.5%)
Intermediate	15 (9.2%)	12 (7.4%)	13 (7.9%)	40 (22.6%)
Wholist	5 (3.1%)	7 (4.3%)	3 (1.8%)	15 (9.0%)
Totals	50 (30.7%)	54 (33.1%)	59 (36.2%)	163 (100.0%)

The mean and SD: *WA mean = 54.3 SD = 39.3*
 VI mean = 54.3 SD = 3.68

Table 5:2 The number, (and percentages in brackets) of the Business Studies students samples of CSA types:

	Verbaliser	Bimodal	Imager	Totals
Analyst	27 (37.5%)	26 (10.6%)	32 (13.1%)	85 (34.7%)
Intermediate	24 (9.8%)	27 (11.0%)	34 (13.9%)	85 (34.7%)
Wholist	21 (8.6%)	22 (8.9%)	32 (13.1%)	75 (30.6%)
Totals	72 (29.4%)	75 (30.6%)	98 (40.0%)	245 (100.0%)

The mean and SD: *WA mean = 81.6 SD = 4.71*
 VI mean = 81.6 SD = 11.6

It was found that the distribution of Fire Service College students was heavily biased towards the ‘analytic’ end of the ‘wholist’-‘analytic’ dimension (68.5%). The ‘wholist’ end of the dimension is very lightly represented (9%) and the ‘intermediate’ range represents just over a fifth of the sample (22.6%). The WA SD = 39.3 indicates a much higher degree of variation in comparison with the VI dimension (SD = 3.68). The business studies students (BSS), by contrast, show a much more even distribution across the Wholist’-Analyst dimension; there being about a third of the sample in each of the WA’ groups. In this sample the WA SD = 4.71 and the VI SD = 11.6.

The distribution along the Verbaliser-Imager dimension for the Fire Service College students shows an almost even proportion in each of the three VI-otypes. The BSS students sample showed a slightly higher proportion in the Imager group in the VI dimension as compared with the FSC students.

A further comparison of Fire Service College students and Business Studies students, shows a large difference of profile across the -wholist-analytic- dimension between the two groups. A chi-square test of the data from the FSC students produced a highly significant result ($\chi^2 = 91.847$) when compared with a normally expected distribution. A multiple chi-squared analysis (using the SPSS Hi-Log Linear facility) of the combined data from the two samples also indicated differences between the two groups that were highly statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) on the -wholist-analytic- dimension. However, across the -verbaliser-imager- dimension the both student samples were more equally distributed and the differences were not statistically significant.

A similar comparison with three other research samples is examined below, (see Table 5.4).

Scores on both the -wholist-analytic- and -verbaliser-imager- dimensions form two continua. A comparison was possible using data available in similar formats for both FSC students and of College of Further Education students (Riding & Wigley 1997).

The table of mean ratios is shown below (Table 5:3).

Table 5:3 A comparison of means and SDs of two samples groups

	FSC students			Coll. of HE students	
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
Wholist/Analytic	1.68	0.62		1.28	0.47
Verbal/Imager	1.06	0.14		1.08	0.17

Cut-off scores between each of the CSA types have been standardised over a number of groups both in educational institutions and a number of vocational groups. From the data gathered, the boundary scores used in the CSA software are set as follows:

- On the 'wholist/analytic' dimension the scores marking the boundaries between 'wholists' and 'intermediates' is 0.936/0.937 and for 'intermediates' and 'analysts' at 1.325/1.326.

From Table 5:3 it can be seen that the mean ratio score for FSC students (1.68) falls well within the 'analytic' range (i.e. >1.326), whereas one would perhaps expect the mean to fall within the 'intermediate' range (i.e. between 0.937 and 1.325); as it does indeed for the BSS sample (1.28).

- On the 'verbaliser/imager' dimension the boundary scores for 'verbalisers' and 'bimodals' are 0.985/0.986 and 'bimodals' and 'imagers' 1.105/1.106.

The two sample means in this case both lie within 'bimodal' range (i.e. between 0.986 and 1.105) and therefore on this dimension it can be inferred that both groups are reasonably 'normally' distributed in relation to the population as a whole, or at least on the population providing the standardising data.

In order to confirm the finding that FSC students were atypical of other groups, as assessed by the CSA, further comparisons of data from other research samples were examined. Three other research studies were studied. They were: Riding and Sadler-Smith (1992), which sampled 14 to 19 year old students; Douglas and Riding (1993), which sampled 10 to 11 year-old children; and Riding and Wigley (1997), which studied 16 to 18 year-old FE students.

In each of these studies the subjects were allocated to sub-groups in numerically equal groupings to assist with analysis, rather than by cognitive style type using the standard cut-off ratios. It is therefore possible to observe the difference in score ranges (*the means are shown in parentheses where available*) for each of the groupings.

Table 5:4 The score ranges of research sample groups divided into two/three equal groups

CSA (score range) CSA type (percentile range)	FSC students	Riding & Wigley (1997)	Douglas and Riding (1993)	Riding and Sadler-Smith (1992)	CSA standard cut-off scores
Whol. (1.0. 33.3)	0.50. 1.35 (Mean = 1.11)	0.31. 1.00	0.371. 0.935	0.36. 0.99	<0.36. 0.936
Interm. (33.4. 66.6)	1.36. 1.76 (Mean = 1.57)	1.01. 1.38	0.938. 1.166	.	0.937. 1.35
Analyst (66.7. 100)	1.77. 4.02 (Mean = 2.32)	1.39. 3.49	1.167. 2.619	1.00. 3.32	1.36. >2.5
Mean WA	(1.68)	(1.28)	(1.08)	(1.06)	
Verbal. (1.0. 33.3)	0.76. 0.99 (Mean = 0.91)	0.40. 0.99	0.830. 1.049	0.78. 1.02	<0.630. 0.985
Bimod. (33.4. 66.6)	1.00. 1.11 (Mean = 1.05)	1.00. 1.13	.	.	0.986. 1.109
Imager (66.7. 100)	1.12. 1.52 (Mean = 1.21)	1.14. 1.57	1.050. 1.794	1.03. 1.48	1.110. >1.50
Mean VI	(1.06)	(1.08)	(1.09)	(1.04)	

A comparison of the score ranges of these equalised groups shows that whilst the research samples reported in 1992, 1993 and 1997 display a greater similarity with the standardised ranges, the data from Fire Service College students display a greater shift towards the analytic pole of the WA dimension. Whereas, on the VerbaliseróImager dimension, there appears to be a greater conformity both with the standardised ranges and the other research samples.

Three of the research studies were samples from younger age groups. Thus, one might possibly hypothesise that as one becomes older individuals may become more analytic. However, a similar comparison of WA scores with age from the FSC studentsødata, it was not possible to confirm this hypothesis. Within the broad range sample of FSC students, their ages ranging from 18 ó 53 years, the correlations with age were as follows (Table 5:5):

Table 5:5 Correlations between Age, WA and VI scores of FSC students

Age / WA ratio				Age / VI ratio			
	N=	Mean age (SD)	Correlation		N=	Mean age (SD)	Correlation
W/A	180	39.8 (7.74)	0.160	V/I	177	40.1 (7.78)	0.023

Data from Spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS

The age range represented in the sample was 18 ó 53 years. On both CSA dimensions the correlations were low and did not reach an acceptable level of significance. Therefore, on this evidence, the null-hypothesis is not rejected ó there is no relationship between age and cognitive styleø

Distribution and analysis of LSQ scores

Distribution of scores

Details about the derivation of the Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ) by P. Honey and A. Mumford have been given above. The instrument is reported to have been used widely in the management training field to facilitate self-awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses in the learning and development processes (Harrison 1988, p.75).

In the current research study, each student selected for the Divisional Command course was sent a copy of the Learning Styles Questionnaire (Honey & Mumford) with their course joining instructions. Students were asked to return the questionnaire for analysis at the College two weeks before the course commenced. The Learning Styles Questionnaire response sheets collected from incoming cohorts of students were analysed using a specially prepared spreadsheet and the results were then given to the course director so that balanced syndicate groups could be arranged before the start of the course.

The mean scores for each of the DCC cohorts are as follows:

Table 5.6 Mean LSQ scores for the DCC student cohorts in the sample (SDs in brackets)

Cohort	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist
DCC01/96	7.86 (3.83)	14.86 (2.66)	13.95 (2.68)	13.76 (3.28)
DCC02/96	7.29 (2.86)	13.90 (3.01)	12.29 (3.53)	12.90 (2.99)
DCC03/96	8.82 (3.94)	13.55 (3.26)	12.27 (2.68)	13.23 (3.86)
DCC04/96	7.88 (3.30)	13.96 (3.23)	12.50 (2.55)	13.31 (2.81)
DCC01/97	8.71 (2.86)	13.10 (4.10)	12.00 (2.39)	13.57 (2.95)
DCC02/97	8.90 (3.90)	12.95 (3.58)	12.30 (3.20)	12.90 (2.79)
DCC03/97	7.33 (2.47)	14.33 (3.62)	12.83 (3.08)	13.44 (2.54)
DCC04/97	7.54 (3.82)	13.13 (3.52)	12.96 (2.17)	13.08 (2.96)

Overall, the profile of the course groups does not appear to change from cohort to cohort although the standard deviations indicate that some individuals within the cohorts can show some extreme scores on some of the dimensions.

The distribution of the total sample of FSC (DCC) students is shown as follows:

Table 5:7 DCC sample number and percentages (in brackets) of LSQ scores:

LSQ type	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist
Very strong	15 (9.3%)	19 (11.8%)	26 (16.1%)	26 (16.1%)
Strong	22 (13.7%)	57 (35.4%)	35 (21.7%)	41 (25.5%)
Moderate	67 (41.6%)	48 (29.8%)	61 (37.9%)	53 (32.9%)
Low	44 (27.3%)	22 (13.7%)	33 (20.5%)	31 (19.3%)
Very low	13 (8.1%)	15 (9.3%)	6 (3.7%)	10 (6.2%)

Sample size = 161

(Predominant score range for each type shown in bold)

Data collected from a previous study of Business Studies students is also included in the table below (Table 5:8) in order that a comparison of the distribution profiles can be made. The Strong ó Very Strong, and Low ó Very Low categories have been concatenated to enable comparisons to be made more uniformly and to show their proportions.

Table 5:8 Comparison of fire service officers with business studies students (in percentages)

LSQ type		Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist
Strong/Very strong	FSC	23%	47%	38%	42%
	BSS	44%	52%	35%	24%
Moderate	FSC	42%	30%	38%	33%
	BSS	39%	28%	33%	38%
Low/Very low	FSC	35%	23%	24%	26%
	BSS	17%	20%	35%	38%

An examination of the proportions of students in each of the LSQ dimensions reveals the following findings:

- Activist:* The Business Studies students tend to be more activist than Fire Service Officers. Almost double the proportion of BSS was found to be 'strong' or 'very strong' activists as compared with the FSC students. Whereas more than FSC students were more than twice as likely to be 'low' or 'very low' activists as compared with the BSS students.
- Reflector:* On this dimension the FSC and BSS students were distributed in a similar pattern. This showed that both samples of students tended to be 'strong' or 'very strong' reflectors.
- Theorist:* The BSS students were evenly distributed on this dimension from the 'very strong' to the 'very low'. The FSC students were slightly more likely to be in the 'very strong/strong' or 'moderate' range but a lower proportion were seen to be 'low/very low'.
- Pragmatist:* The FSC students were much more likely to be 'strong/very strong' on this dimension than the BSS students who were more likely to be 'moderate' or 'low/very low'.

An earlier study on Fire Service officers, Shevels (1996), indicated that there was a difference in the LSQ profile between junior and senior officers. A comparison of means from the 1996 study and the current study is shown in Table 5:9 below.

Table 5:9 Comparison of LSQ means, (SDs in parentheses)

LSQ type	Shevels (1996)		Current sample
	Junior Officer	Senior Officer	DCC (Senior Officer)
Activist	9.50 (3.36)	8.49 (3.31)	7.98 (3.30)
Reflector	13.84 (3.43)	13.62 (3.45)	13.93 (3.48)
Theorist	11.86 (2.81)	13.63 (3.03)	12.62 (2.96)
Pragmatist	12.54 (2.67)	14.28 (2.60)	13.52 (2.97)
Sample sizes	202	226	161

In the Shevels (1996) samples the mean score differences on the 'activist' dimension are reported to be significant ($p < 0.002$). His findings support a view that the more Junior Officers have a more 'activist' learning style as compared with the more Senior Officers, who tended to be more 'theorist' and 'pragmatic' in style. Since junior

officers were not included in the current research sample, no similar comparisons could be made.

The only further comment on these two sets of data would be to say that, in the current research (1997) sample, there appears to be an even greater difference on the *activist* dimension between the senior officers and the junior officers in the 1996 sample. On the *reflector* dimension there is little difference between junior and senior officers' mean scores from both samples. On the *theorist* and *pragmatist* dimensions the differences between the current (1997) research and the junior officers' senior officer (1996) samples appear to be smaller.

From a learning styles point of view, and hence a pointer to those designing courses, there does appear to be some difference in learning style profile between junior and senior officers but only that senior officers are less *activist*. From a practical point of view, that would seem to suggest that the more senior officers would be less likely to depend on direct experience when learning than would more junior officers. This would seem to be in accordance with general developmental learning processes as outlined in the models by Piaget and Bruner. Older individuals have a longer, and possibly more varied, experience on which to build new learning than do younger learners.

Factor analysis of the LSQ Data

The Learning Styles Questionnaire ó LSQ ó (Honey and Mumford, 1982, 1992) is reported to have four dimensions, ðactivistð ðreflectorð ðtheoristð and ðpragmatistð. However, further factor analytical studies report that the data can be explained by fewer simpler factors, or clusters. This has brought into question the number of dimensions that can explain variations in sample data and has led to proposals that learning style can be explained in terms of two dimensions, ðactionð and ðanalysisð (Allinson and Hayes 1988, 1990; Sadler-Smith and Riding ó 1997). Furnham, (1995) goes on to report that the personality trait ðextraversionð (Eysenck and Eysenck EPQ 1975) correlates with the ðactivistð learning style. In his later research, Furnham *et al* (1997) reports correlations of LSQ factors with EPP factors and superfactors. He reports that the ðactivistð and ðpragmatistð dimensions correlate with (EPP) ðextraversionð $r = 0.47$ and $r = 0.29$ respectively. On the other superfactors, ðreflectorsð correlate with ðneuroticismó stabilityð $r = 0.17$; ðactivistð is significantly correlated with ðhigh psychoticismð $r = 0.46$; ðreflectorsð and ðtheoristsð correlate negatively with ðhigh psychoticismð $r = -0.38$ and $r = -0.25$ respectively.

A recent research study by Shevels (1996) carried out at the Fire Service College used a cluster analysis technique to identify learning types amongst both junior and senior officers. His findings included three main clusters as follows: *Cluster 1* ó individuals having strong ðactivistð low ðreflectorð and ðtheoristð and a moderate ðpragmatistð style; *Cluster 2* ó individuals with strong ðreflectorð ðtheoristð and ðpragmatistð with a

moderate \neg activist style; *Cluster 3* 6 individuals with moderate \neg activist \neg reflector and \neg theorist with low \neg pragmatist style.

In view of the range of behavioural descriptors used within each of these clusters, it would be difficult to suggest stable constructs for each of the three clusters. This research highlights the complexity of identifying clear and discrete descriptors of learning style constructs.

In the current study, the data collected from the sample of Divisional Command students (N=152 providing complete parallel data sets) was added to the data from the Business Studies HE students (N=208). The total sample (N=360) was subjected to factor analysis using the SPSS package.

The pattern of correlations between the LSQ dimensions is shown in the following Table 5:10.

Table 5:10 Correlations between the LSQ dimensions

Correlations	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist
Activist	1.000	. 0.446***	. 0.391***	0.046
Reflector	. 0.446***	1.000	0.535***	0.076
Theorist	. 0.391***	0.535***	1.000	0.402***
Pragmatist	0.046	0.076	0.402***	1.000

2. tailed significance: ** < 0.01 *** < 0.001

There are highly significant ($p < 0.001$) negative correlations between \neg reflectors and \neg theorists and \neg activists. There were significant positive correlations between \neg theorists and \neg reflectors and \neg theorists and \neg pragmatists.

A principal components analysis on the current data did indeed yield only two factors with eigenvalues >1.0 (Factor 1 = 1.998, Factor 2 = 1.111). A Varimax rotation of the data clarified the correlational pattern and the resulting matrix is listed in the table below (Table 5:11).

Table 5:11 Correlation data on the LSQ Factor Analysis

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Activist	. 0.836	0.127
Reflector	0.823	0.155
Theorist	0.649	0.609
Pragmatist	. 0.052	0.946

Factor 1 accounted for 50% of the variance, whilst factor 2 accounted for 27.8% and thus the two factors contributed some 77.7% of the variance. The highest correlation on Factor 1 was the *reflector* and on Factor 2 the *pragmatist* dimension loaded most highly. It is interesting to note that the *theorist* dimension loads almost equally on both factors (0.65 and 0.61 respectively).

These findings, though suggesting that there are two factors, do not follow the Allinson and Hayes (1988, 1990) research.

In the process of conceptualising Factor 1 it is necessary to look at the items (statements) in the LSQ that are scored as *reflector* items, and also to a lesser extent those scored as *theorist* items. The *activist* dimension correlates highly negatively on factor 1 and a low positive loading on factor 2.

In order to attach some meaning to these factors, relevant descriptors from the LSQ are identified below. The descriptors for Factor 1 include sample statements such as:

Reflectors

- 7. ... time for thorough preparation and implementation.
- 13. ... take pride in doing a thorough job.
- 15. ... take care over the interpretation of data ...
- 16. ... reach a decision carefully after weighing up alternatives.
- 25. ... pay meticulous attention to detail before coming to a conclusion.
- 41. ... decisions based on a thorough analysis are sounder than those based on intuition.
- 66. ... think carefully before taking action.
- 76. ... always interested to find out what people think.

Theorists

- 3. ... tend to solve problems using a step-by-step approach.
- 12. ... keen on self-disciplinesticking to a fixed routine.
- 14. ... get on best with logical, analytical people
- 18. ... prefer to fit things into a coherent pattern.
- 20. ... relate my actions to a general principle
- 47. ... can often see inconsistencies and weaknesses in other people's arguments.
- 51. ... believe that rational, logical thinking should win the day.
- 63. ... like to be able to relate current actions to a longer-term bigger picture.

An examination of the constructs used in the above statements, and other similar statements in the same categories of the LSQ but not quoted above, show that the words *careful, thorough, meticulous, analytical, logical, relate to general principle, coherent pattern* and a 'need to gather information' would typify people who are analytical in terms of their cognitive style.

These findings would tend to give partial support to the Allinson and Hayes (1988) research in that the factor they term '*analysis*' is one of the two main factors sampled by the LSQ.

Factor 2 appears to be founded primarily on the *pragmatist* category of the LSQ with a high loading of 0.95 and supported by a contributory element covered by the *theorist* category (0.61).

The constructs that describe the characteristics of this factor can be gained from a representative sample of statements in the following:

Pragmatist

- 5. ... have a reputation for saying what I think, simply and directly.
- 9. What matters most is whether something works in practice.
- 19. ... accept and stick to laid down procedures so long as I regard them as an efficient way of getting the job done.
- 21. In discussions I like to get straight to the point.
- 35. ... tend to be attracted to techniques such as network analysis etc.
- 49. ... can often see better, more practical ways to get things done.
- 53. I like people who approach things realistically rather than theoretically.
- 73. I do whatever is expedient to get the job done.

The overriding characteristic of the Pragmatist is a person who is practical and wants to get things done.

It is perhaps puzzling that the descriptor statements in the LSQ *activist* dimension do not load more highly on factor two, which tends to be *action* orientated. There appears, therefore, to be a possible qualitative difference in the *action* construct as indicated in the Allinson & Hayes (1990) research as compared with the current research.

It could be argued that both *activist* and *pragmatist* are action orientated as judged by their construct make-up illustrated by the descriptors listed above. Allinson and Hayes' findings suggest that the *action* dimension correlates more with the LSQ

–activist ($r = 0.81$ to 0.86) rather than has been found in the current research, which suggests that the –pragmatist descriptors form the basis of the –action component.

In the later Allinson and Hayes (1990) research, which looked at the validity of the LSQ used with managers from Britain and Asia, the –action dimension correlated with LSQ –activist ($r = 0.81$ British sample, and $r = 0.85$ Asian sample); as compared with the correlation with –pragmatist ($r = 0.15$ British and $r = 0.21$ Asian). These findings are to be compared with the current research findings in which Factor 2 (action orientated) correlates with –pragmatists ($r = 0.95$), and –activist correlates to a much lesser degree, ($r = 0.13$). These findings may be the result of the smaller numbers in the FSC sample scoring Strong or Very Strong on the –activist dimension

In attempting to lay some benchmarks as to what characterizes an activist learner, one needs to consider whether a person who has an –action type learning style exhibits the characteristics of an –impulsive –go-getting learner, high on the psychotic scale or whether as a more –rational –down-to-earth practically orientated person who is low on the psychotic scale.

From the descriptors of the –activist it would appear that such people would tend to want to act without any constraints either in terms of procedures or out of consideration for the feelings of other people, and yet they to act on their own –gut feelings (intuition). There is an element of *impulsivity* in the statements relating to the –activist whereas the actions of the –pragmatist are taken either after following procedures, or of knowing what works, or is practically feasible.

In attempting to define factor 1, it could be said that a bi-polar construct based on 'reflectivity' vs 'impulsivity' would fit. This dimension would appear to be not only lexically similar to the Eysenck trait 'impulsive' in the 'psychoticism' factor (3-factor model), but also a trait in the 'neuroticism' factor of Costa and McRae's 5-factor model. The range of descriptors in the LSQ that could be used to describe this factor would match the 'impulsive' vs 'control' personality trait that is linked to 'regulated' versus 'unregulated' behaviour.

A factorial study of the EPP, LSQ and MBTI (Furnham, Jackson, Forde & Cotter, 1997) revealed that 'activist' was almost equally correlated with 'extraversion' ($r = 0.46$) and 'psychoticism' ($r = 0.47$) and confirmed earlier findings (Furnham, 1992) in which 'activism' correlated positively with the 'extraversion' and 'psychoticism' scales of the EPQ.

In the same studies the 'reflectors' were found to be negatively correlated with the EPQ 'extraversion' scale ($r = -0.51$) and modestly correlated with the NEO-PI 'neuroticism' scale ($r = 0.15$).

It is interesting to note that amongst the findings in these studies they report that the LSQ 'reflector' and EPP Reflective scales correlated at 0.13. This raises the point raised earlier about the trait labels having slightly different attributes according to the instruments used. However, in their summary, they report 'the EPP superfactors of 'extraversion' and 'psychoticism' are highly related to the LSQ scales.' But on the other hand, 'Neuroticism seems to have no meaningful relationship with the LSQ.'

The Δ theorist dimension is more difficult to describe in terms of the two factors identified since it appears from the data collected that it correlates almost equally with them both. In the absence of similar research findings, it would be interesting to identify what aspects of Δ theorist behaviour contributes to the Δ reflector type behaviour in factor 1 and what aspect contributes to factor 2.

It would appear from the descriptors in the LSQ Handbook that the following would link with factor 1 (reflective behaviours):

- They have time to explore methodically the associations and inter-relationships between ideas, events and situations.
- They have the chance to question and probe the basic methodology or logic behind something.

and factor 2 (pragmatic behaviours):

- They are in structured situations with a clear purpose
- They can listen to or read about ideas and concepts that emphasis rationality or logic and are well argued/elegant/watertight.

The former aspects of Δ theorists involving probing and having time to explore would seem to equate with reflective behaviour. In the latter, the Δ clear purpose and rationality would appear to link with Δ pragmatism. Some further research would be necessary to substantiate this.

However, the two-factor model does suggest that the LSQ model does not fall decisively into four dimensions. If there are two dimensions then it is still not yet entirely clear what the behavioural characteristics of each factor are.

Relationship between the CSA and LSQ

We shall look now at the current research data and examine what relationships exist between the CSA and the LSQ instruments.

One of the early study tasks in this research looked at possible relationships between the four aspects of the LSQ instrument, *activist*, *reflector*, *theorist* and *pragmatist* and the two dimensions in the CSA ‘*wholist–analytic*’ and ‘*verbaliser–imager*’. Table 5:12 below sets out the correlations between each of the dimensions.

Table 5:12 Correlations between the CSA and LSQ dimensions

Correlations	WA	VI	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist
WA	1.000	. 0.043	. 0.135	0.081	0.121	0.089
VI	. 0.043	1.000	0.021	0.031	0.012	0.005
Activist	. 0.135	0.021	1.000	. 0.446**	. 0.391**	0.046
Reflector	0.081	0.031	. 0.446**	1.000	0.535**	0.076
Theorist	0.121	0.012	. 0.391**	0.535**	1.000	0.402**
Pragmatist	0.089	0.005	0.046	0.076	0.402**	1.000

2. tailed significance: * < 0.01 ** < 0.001

The correlations between the CSA and LSQ scores are near to zero; the highest correlation being between the WA ratio and –theoristø. Although there were both negative and positive correlations between the LSQ and the WholistóAnalytic dimension, particularly with regard to –activistsø and –theoristsø, correlations with the VerbaliseróImager dimension were broadly similar (mean $r = 0.017$) and could be considered as almost zero for all practical purposes. None of the correlations reached a statistically significant level. The practical significance of the findings of this data is discussed below.

Discussion

The current research study aimed at looking for associations between assessing individuals on the Cognitive Styles Analysis (Riding 1991) and the Learning Styles Questionnaire (Honey and Mumford, 1986 revised). Furnham (1995) discusses the problems associated with research into the links between personality, intelligence, educational achievement and cognitive style. He goes on to suggest that cognitive style has a moderating influence on these other factors. Other researchers in the field have tended to focus on the associations between just two or three factors at a time. With the variety of results that have emerged, Furnham suggests that the links between these factors are complex.

The initial hypothesis of the current research was that, within the population as a whole, large group samples would show an even distribution of cognitive style types. This current sample study indicates that, of the research groups represented here, the fire service officer students and general business management students do have different profiles with regard to cognitive style as sampled by the CSA. Other research studies in the field of cognitive style research, using the CSA instrument, also indicate that certain other vocational groups display distinctive profiles (Riding and Rayner, 1998, p.134).

As more research data is gathered using the CSA instrument, it might be possible to see whether there are cognitive style types more suited to certain vocations or types of employment. In a similar way, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, which has been

the subject of many research studies over several decades, has accrued a large body of data linking profiles of personality factor types to particular vocational groups.

By extrapolating data from the research by Furnham *et al* (1997) referred to above, it might be possible to suggest that the 'wholist' dimension of the CSA correlates negatively to a small/modest degree with the LSQ 'activist' dimension. If there had been a larger number of subjects in the 'wholist' category, it might have been interesting to discover whether there was a link between 'wholist' and 'extroversion' and 'activist'.

However, the descriptors used in the CSA handbook (Riding 1994) would suggest that the 'extroversion' aspect of personality is linked more with the 'verbaliser' aspect of cognitive style as sampled by the CSA than by the 'wholist' style as such. The linkages here are by descriptor rather than by statistical association; the correlations in the current sample being generally low ($r < \pm 0.10$). The research into cognitive style and personality (Riding and Wigley, 1997) supports this. In their research they used three personality tests in conjunction with the CSA; the *EPQ-R Short Scale* (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1991), the *IVE Questionnaire* (Eysenck & Eysenck 1991), and the *State and Trait Anxiety Inventory* (Spielberger, 1977). The correlations between cognitive style and eight personality factors were all low ($r < \pm 0.10$).

The problems of finding stable definitions, or behavioural indicators, for constructs used in the field of personality and cognitive style research has been difficult since each research instrument has been developed on different aspects of some theoretical model. Reviews that compare the various pieces of research (Furnham 1995;

Sadler-Smith, 1997) whilst attempting to bring together common threads to unify meanings, still leaves one with a complexity of definitions to grapple with.

This complexity is compounded by the research background of those exploring the field, (Furnham, 1995, p.404) for example, researchers with a clinical background would tend to focus on the social and interpersonal aspects of cognitive style, whereas those with a background in cognitive psychology would focus on perception and attention. Furnham goes on to recommend some ‘conceptual and methodological house-keeping’ in order to come to some kind of common view; a point raised by Curry (1983). However, this may be the nature of knowledge probing that there is a process of *progressive differentiation* (Ausubel, 1968) an expanding knowledge field and thus a proliferation of new concepts. What Furnham appears to be recommending is that some superordinate restructuring is required to bring these disparate ideas together.

The current research casts only a small light in what is a large complex field of knowledge about how cognitive style interfaces with the learning process and the problem of matching learners with ‘appropriate’ learning experiences is but just a part of a larger human interaction jig-saw puzzle.

Whether the CSA instrument alone can accurately identify individuals for particular vocations must be the subject of further confirmatory studies. Amongst other factors that could be considered is the degree to which the vocational activities themselves influence the development of the person and the way in which they have to deal with information. Indeed, are there combinations of other factors at work here, such

factors as perceptual strengths and weaknesses (e.g. good or poor eyesight, hearing etc.), environmental, genetic and diet?

The next chapter looks at cognitive and learning styles and possible links with preferences for types of training delivery. In the study reported in this chapter, there is an attempt to put down markers about the links between the expressive learning preferences as shown by the LSQ and the more inner core processes of cognitive style using the CSA.

Summary

This chapter describes the analysis process carried out on the data collected from students attending the Divisional Command Courses during 1995-1997.

The sample, some 163 students, supplied data on the three instruments described in the previous chapter; the CSA, the LSQ, and the preferences questionnaire.

The profile of Fire Service College (FSC) students was compared on both the CSA and LSQ instruments with some data gathered from Business Studies students at another HE institution.

On the CSA the FSC students showed a distinctly different tendency on the 'wholist' analytic dimension as compared with the HE students. Whilst the FSC students tended to be mostly 'analyst', the HE students were more equally distributed along the 'wholist' analytic dimension. These differences were found to be statistically significant beyond the $p < 0.01$ level. On the 'verbaliser' dimension distribution of both FSC and HE students was more equal and differences were not significant.

Comparisons with other research samples of the FSC distribution on the 'wholist' analytic dimension revealed similar differences and thus concluded that FSC students were not typical of the wider range from other samples.

Data from the LSQ revealed the FSC sample as being less 'activist' but more 'pragmatist' than the HE sample. On the 'reflector' and 'theorist' dimensions the proportions of FSC and HE students were not significantly different.

A factor analysis of the LSQ data gathered from the FSC students revealed two strong factors, and a pragmatists dimension loaded highly on the action factor and the reflectors dimension loaded highly on the reflection factor. The activists were highly negatively loaded on this factor. Theorists however, loaded almost equally on both factors.

The data from both the CSA and the LSQ showed very low correlations between the two instruments; ranging from 0.13 to 0.12. This would tend to indicate that the two instruments are assessing different aspects of cognitive functioning. The LSQ (sampling at a superficial level) the CSA (at a deeper level) do not appear to be correlated.

The use of the same construct names as descriptors in reports from different instruments such as the CSA and LSQ indicates that there are probably qualitative differences attached to such constructs.

CHAPTER 6

Analysis of Preferences Questionnaire, CSA and LSQ scores

Overview

In this section of the research report, we shall examine the data collected from the Preferences Questionnaire in order to explore relationships, if any, between students' preferences for teaching delivery modes and their cognitive and learning styles as assessed by the Cognitive Styles Analysis and the Learning Styles Questionnaire.

Data was also collected, using the Preferences Questionnaire, about how students rated the various delivery modes and the degree to which they were helpful to their learning.

The data from the Preferences Questionnaire was subjected to a factor analysis in order to explore the possibility that some simpler structure could explain the types of delivery mode. The relationships between the identified factors and the CSA and LSQ instruments were then also examined.

Data gathering methodology

The derivation of the Preferences Questionnaire using a repertory grid analysis and survey of teaching delivery methods was described in Chapter 4. The questionnaire represented the range of delivery methods used on courses at the College. It should be pointed out that at the time of writing a substantial amount of reorganization was taking place. This involved looking at how courses were being delivered and searching for methods whereby course costs could be reduced and made more cost efficient. The questionnaire was designed to gather information about students' preferences for the various delivery methods used on the training programme and also to gather opinions on how helpful they were to their learning.

The questionnaires were distributed to the students by their tutors who pointed out the instructions for completing them. The instructions for completing the form were included on the questionnaire. The students had a very tight timetable schedule, and therefore the method of data entry was made as easy as possible so as to minimise the time taken to complete them. In order to add a degree of legitimacy and credibility to the completion of the questionnaire forms, students were asked to use them as an evaluation form for the training session.

It was felt necessary to do this because DCC students are required during their course to carry out a Management Study Project and many of the group were involved in designing their own questionnaires for colleagues to complete. There was, therefore, a danger that distribution of yet another questionnaire might lead to '*questionnaire fatigue*'. However, there were still some problems in asking students to complete

forms as an evaluation exercise, but this will be detailed in the discussion section in Chapter 8. Despite these problems the response rate was generally over 80% for each cohort. After completion, the forms were returned to the tutor and then handed to me for analysis.

The questionnaire (see Appendix 1) instructions requested students to rate each of the 14 delivery modes used on the College programme by using the five point scale of *Strong preference, Moderate preference, No particular preference, Dislike, and Strongly dislike*. Students were also asked to rate each delivery mode on a three point scale to indicate how helpful each mode was to their own learning; *Very helpful, Quite helpful* and *Very little help*.

The data from the questionnaire forms were collated into a spreadsheet, described earlier, that already contained data from the other instruments used of the CSA and the LSQ; the analysis of the CSA and LSQ data having already been described in Chapter 5.

Initially, the data from the Preference Questionnaire was analysed so as to examine the rank order of the delivery modes based on degree of preference. A similar rank order analysis was done on how helpful students found the various delivery methods to be to their learning.

The first stage of data analysis aimed at looking at the degree of preference for teaching delivery mode regardless of students' cognitive style or learning style. The general information from this analysis was designed to help inform future decision-

making about styles of course delivery to be used on newly designed or re-designed courses.

Whilst every effort has been made to balance the use of different teaching methods on courses, little information has been available on how students feel about how they have helped with their learning.

The second stage involved looking at the same data according to students' CSA types and their LSQ types and to examine any possible links between preference and style.

Finally, a factor analysis was performed on the data to look for groupings of delivery methods and the predominant teaching/learning modes involved. The findings from this process were then used to examine possible links between the identified factors and style.

In parallel to this, at the time of writing, a long and detailed look is being taken into the current assessment processes and schemes. Any planned changes to these schemes would then have an impact on how courses are delivered.

Particular note is being made of the analyses being carried out on the facility and discrimination indices of items in the question bank used for examinations on the progression courses. A closer examination of the item bank question content and wording is being made in order to look at the proportion of questions that require mere recall and those requiring a deeper level of understanding.

The current predominant practice of 'objective, multiple choice' assessment formats has encouraged an emphasis on 'surface' learning to the detriment of deeper

understanding. An analysis of the assessment questions set in a recent final examination for a course revealed that 77% of the questions were set at the knowledge level (in Bloom's taxonomy terms), the remainder were no higher than the comprehension level.

Recent College course developments have focused on training for competence and, as a result, a need for students to have a deeper understanding of principles and procedures so that this knowledge can be applied competently. This has influenced some re-thinking of course delivery planning. Criticism from students about the assessments in their course evaluations has prompted some action in proposing alternative assessment schemes.

The data gathered through the Preferences Questionnaire, therefore, has some utility value in informing the decision-making about future course design and in particular how courses might be delivered. This will be discussed in Chapter 8.

The complete set of data from the Preferences Questionnaire was entered into a spreadsheet, (DCCLSQPQ.XLS), for analysis. A separate sheet, within the main file, was compiled for each of the LSQ types, activist, reflector etc., and the data were sorted numerically by score on each type from the very low scores to the very strong. The tables below describe the distribution of these ratings.

Results

In the first stage, the data from the sample of DCC students responding to the Preference Questionnaire were analysed in three main ways: (1) the degree of student preference as a whole regardless of cognitive style (CSA) or learning style (LSQ); (2) preference ratings in relation to CSA category; (3) preference ratings in relation to LSQ type grouping.

In the first analysis, summarized below in Table 6:1, the overall ratings of the student sample are set out. The results of the preferences are tabulated according to their mean ratings and also their mode. In this way it is possible to provide (a) a rank order of preferences ó using the means, and (b) to derive the level of popular preference for delivery method ó using the mode value.

Table 6:1 Average and Mode of the Preference ratings for each Delivery Method

Delivery method	Mean rating	Mode	N=
(DM1) Listening to the lecturer talking	3.72	4	108
(DM2) Looking at pictures/diagrams	3.71	4	95
(DM3) Watching 35mm slides	3.10	3	63
(DM4) Watching video or film	3.93	4	100
(DM5) Demonstration using equipment/floorplans etc.	3.53	4	62
(DM6) Reading course-notes/books	2.86	2	91
(DM7) Writing notes and exercises	3.30	3	92
(DM8) Discussion with tutor	4.09	4	103
(DM9) Discussion with colleagues	4.21	4	106
(DM10) Working on simulated exercises/case studies	4.10	4	92
(DM11) Role play exercises	3.96	4	75
(DM12) De-briefing practical exercises using video	3.84	4	69
(DM13) Library study and researching information	3.36	3	73
(DM14) Using learning materials for study purposes	3.35	3	77

Data from Spreadsheet DCCCSAC2.XLS

In translating these findings into a rank order of preference, the list below (Table 6:2) includes all the delivery modes that received a modal rating of *four* and then rank ordered on the basis of the mean. The number of students is also given for each rating.

Table 6:2 Rank order Preference ratings data for most popular delivery methods

Delivery mode	Modal rating	Mean rating	N= Strong preference	N= Moderate preference	N= No partic. preference	N= Dislike	N= Strong dislike
DM9	4	4.21	40	50	14	2	0
DM10	4	4.10	30	45	15	1	0
DM8	4	4.09	33	48	21	0	1
DM11	4	3.96	20	39	9	7	0
DM4	4	3.93	24	47	27	2	0
DM12	4	3.84	19	29	16	3	0
DM1	4	3.72	20	47	34	5	2
DM2	4	3.71	13	46	32	3	1
DM5	4	3.53	5	32	20	3	0

There appears to be general approval for nine out of the fourteen delivery methods used on the College programme. A visual inspection of the numbers of students rating the delivery methods as 'moderate preference' or 'strong preference' also indicates this. There is a clear pattern showing delivery methods that involve interaction either with the tutor, or with other colleagues, received a high preference rating.

The overall attributes of the delivery methods listed above include aspects of 'interactivity' and 'involvement' in the teaching/learning process, or they include 'visually stimulating material' e.g. 'working on simulated exercises/case studies', 'role play' and 'watching video/film'. Though most courses used these methods from time to time, more than 55% of course programme time on some progression courses is devoted to 'Listening to the lecturer' which was ranked 7th.

The least preferred modes of delivery were:

Rank 10.	Library study, etc.	mean rating	3.36
11.	Using study materials (DM14)		3.35
12.	Writing notes etc. (DM7)		3.30
13.	Watching 35mm slides, etc. (DM5)		3.10
14.	Reading course notes (DM6)		2.86

This shows that the more passive and less visually stimulating methods of learning were not given such high ratings, e.g. Reading course notes/books (mean rating = 2.86, mode = 2) with 39% of students rating it as dislike or strongly dislike.

As well as looking at students' preferences for types of delivery, it was interesting to include in this research an examination of how students found the various delivery methods were helpful to their learning. The table below (Table 6:3) shows the average rating given by students on helpfulness to learning.

Table 6:3 Average ratings on Helpfulness for each Delivery Mode

Delivery mode	Mean	Mode	N=
(DM1H) Listening to the lecturer talking	2.40	2	107
(DM2H) Looking at pictures/diagrams	2.17	2	94
(DM3H) Watching 35mm slides	1.85	2	62
(DM4H) Watching video or film	2.47	3	98
(DM5H) Demonstration using equipment/floorplans, etc.	2.11	2	61
(DM6H) Reading course-notes/books	1.80	2	90
(DM7H) Writing notes and exercises	2.01	2	91
(DM8H) Discussion with tutor	2.58	3	102
(DM9H) Discussion with colleagues	2.66	3	105
(DM10H) Working on simulated exercises/case studies	2.46	3	91
(DM11H) Role play exercises	2.34	3	74
(DM12H) De-briefing practical exercises using video	2.42	3	67
(DM13H) Library study and researching information	2.19	2	72
(DM14H) Using learning materials for study purposes	1.99	2	76

Although the three point rating scale does not show a wide range of discrimination, it is sufficient to give some indication as to which delivery methods were most helpful to students. The rank order of the most helpful delivery methods (rated = 3) is shown in Table 6:4

Table 6:4 Average and mode of Helpfulness ratings and data for each Delivery Method

Delivery mode	Modal rating	Mean rating	N= Very Helpful	N= Quite Helpful	N= Very little help
DM9H	3	2.66	76	24	3
DM8H	3	2.58	62	38	1
DM4H	3	2.47	52	41	4
DM10H	3	2.46	47	41	1
DM12H	3	2.42	33	29	5
DM11H	3	2.34	36	29	7

In terms of helpfulness, it appears that the rank order pattern follows a similar pattern to that of the preferences. Delivery methods involving video (or other moving images)

and those that involve interaction between colleagues and/or their tutor were seen as being most helpful to student learning. Working on case studies or simulated exercises, role-play and de-briefing with video were seen to be the next most helpful methods.

The least helpful methods appeared to be:

using learning materials for study purposes	Mean = 1.99
watching 35mm slides	1.85
reading course notes/books	1.80

Delivery methods and cognitive style (by CSA types)

Having looked at the preferences and degree of helpfulness of delivery methods across the whole sample of students, we shall next look at the same data but listed according to their cognitive style groupings based on CSA ratio data. The data was examined in order to see if there was any relationship between students' preference ratings and their cognitive style ratio. The table below (Table 6:5) shows the correlations between the rank order of preference of the 14 teaching delivery methods and students' VI and WA ratio scores.

Table 6:5 Correlations of Delivery Method and WA and VI Ratios

Preference	WA	VI	Helpfulness	WA	VI
DM1	0.084	. 0.149	DM1	0.033	. 0.070
DM2	. 0.039	. 0.020	DM2	. 0.002	0.049
DM3	. 0.118	0.217**	DM3	0.002	0.155
DM4	. 0.100	. 0.013	DM4	. 0.001	. 0.004
DM5	0.104	0.034	DM5	. 0.078	0.258**
DM6	. 0.133	0.021	DM6	. 0.030	0.089
DM7	. 0.192*	. 0.026	DM7	. 0.126	. 0.065
DM8	. 0.024	. 0.041	DM8	. 0.058	0.059
DM9	. 0.093	. 0.126	DM9	. 0.078	. 0.013
DM10	. 0.136	0.049	DM10	. 0.072	0.098
DM11	. 0.259**	0.238**	DM11	. 0.134	0.189*
DM12	. 0.088	. 0.066	DM12	. 0.154	0.027
DM13	. 0.014	. 0.034	DM13	0.005	0.093
DM14	. 0.130	0.090	DM14	0.055	0.185*

N=166 df (N. 2)=164 Critical values: (p<0.05) = 0.1560*, (p<0.01) = 0.2038**

Except in the few cases, which are marked * or **, the correlations suggest that there is little relationship between students' WA or VI ratio scores and the preference rating allocated to a delivery method. In the cases that show a statistically significant

correlation, it would appear that DM3 (Watching 35mm slides, etc.) with a high VI score (towards the 'imager' end of the scale) relates to higher 'preference' ratings. The large number of negative correlation coefficients would suggest that the rank order of preference has a small inverse relationship with WA score. Although some of the correlations show a statistical significance, the level of practical significance is low.

It must also be noted that this method of delivery (DM3) was generally given a low preference rating, indicating that the range of ratings is somewhat restricted, and therefore the practical significance of this finding is limited except to state that low ratings tend to show a relationship with low CSA ratios, i.e. with 'verbalisers'.

A similar comment can be made about the relationships of data on DM7 (Writing notes and exercises, etc.). This again was one of the less preferred delivery methods (Mean rating = 3.30) but it appears to have a negative relationship to the WA scale; that is, low preference ratings appear to have relationship with a higher WA ratios (i.e. tending towards the 'analytic' end of the scale).

The delivery method that correlates most highly on both WA and VI dimensions is DM11 (Role-play exercises). On the WA scale there is a negative relationship with the preference rating. This would suggest that low ratios on the WA scale (the 'wholist' end) relate to high preference ratings for this mode of delivery. It should however be noted that the general skew of WA ratios is towards the 'analytic' end of the dimension and so the implication would be that DM11 is more preferred by the less 'analytic' student. There could therefore be a possible link between this type of

activity and those who tend towards 'extroversion'. On the VI dimension there is a positive relationship between 'preference' rating and VI ratio. This would imply that DM11 is increasingly preferred by the more 'imager' orientated student.

Turning now to the 'helpfulness' ratings, there appears to be a general negative correlation (the few positive correlations being near to zero) between 'helpfulness' ratings and ratio scores on the WA dimension, none of which were statistically significant. On the VI dimension there were three modes of delivery that showed significant relationships with 'helpfulness' ratings.

1. DM5 (Demonstration using equipment, etc.) showed a positive relationship with the VI dimension. This would suggest that higher VI ratios ('imagers') gave higher 'helpfulness' ratings to this mode of delivery; and thus, by implication, this mode is less helpful to 'verbalisers'.
2. DM11 (Role-play exercises) showed a positive correlation; thus it would appear that 'imagers' (i.e. the higher VI ratio scores) would find this mode of delivery more helpful than 'verbalisers'.
3. DM14 (Using learning materials, etc.) would tend to be found more helpful to 'imagers' than 'verbalisers' although this mode of delivery was not found to be generally helpful (Mean rating 1.99).

Having looked at the sample as a whole, a more detailed breakdown of the data is discussed below. In the data collection sample, there were no complete parallel data sets collected from 'wholist-imager' type (there being only three subjects of this type

in the whole sample). As the distribution of cognitive style types was heavily skewed towards the -analytic end of the WA dimension, it was decided to divide the sample into four equal groups based on the ratio scores. These groups were entitled: Hi-verbal, Moderately verbal, Moderately imager and Hi-imager. The Wholist-Analytic dimension was similarly divided into equal groups. The table below (Table 6:6) shows the average rating for each of the delivery modes by CSA grouping.

Table 6:6 The mean preference rating of each delivery method by CSA ratio grouping

CSA group	Hi-Verbal	Mod-Verbal	Mod-Imager	Hi-Imager	Mean VI	Hi-Wholist	Mod-Wholist	Mod-Analyst	Hi-Analyst	Mean WA	N=
DM1	4.00	3.80	3.67	3.63	3.74	3.81	3.40	3.88	3.90	3.72	108
DM2	3.76	3.82	3.86	3.65	3.71	4.11	3.75	3.50	3.95	3.71	95
DM3	2.94	3.18	3.00	3.29	3.10	3.11	3.38	3.09	3.00	3.13	63
DM4	4.05	4.24	3.87	3.91	3.93	4.06	4.17	3.90	4.00	3.93	100
DM5	3.38	3.80	3.67	3.39	3.53	3.60	4.00	3.00	4.00	3.54	62
DM6	2.70	3.20	2.86	2.77	2.86	3.19	2.88	2.73	2.90	2.87	91
DM7	3.20	3.52	3.23	3.27	3.30	3.55	3.40	3.27	3.00	3.30	92
DM8	4.19	4.36	4.00	4.14	4.09	4.22	4.25	4.06	4.23	4.09	103
DM9	4.36	4.44	4.22	4.13	4.21	4.42	4.35	4.19	4.27	4.21	106
DM10	4.10	4.23	4.32	4.00	4.10	4.47	4.31	3.93	4.15	4.10	92
DM11	3.76	3.78	4.11	4.16	3.96	4.31	4.33	3.76	3.78	3.99	75
DM12	4.00	4.00	3.94	3.47	3.84	3.80	4.20	3.67	3.81	3.84	69
DM13	3.32	3.67	3.16	3.28	3.36	3.67	3.23	2.96	3.65	3.35	73
DM14	3.05	3.69	3.43	3.17	3.35	3.43	3.50	3.12	3.42	3.33	77

DM = Delivery Mode

The profile of mean scores across cognitive style grouping for each delivery methods falls roughly into four basic patterns:

1. Linear ó level, rising or falling;
2. -U shaped ó symmetrical or asymmetrical;
3. inverted -U shaped ó symmetrical or asymmetrical;
4. -S shaped.

It would appear that the spread of different types of profile indicate a somewhat random, or diffuse, relationship between cognitive style grouping and preference ratings for methods of delivery; that is, there does not appear to be a consistent gradation of CSA ratio scores in relation to each of the two dimensions.

However, a further examination of the data reveals a consistency of mean preference scores given across each of the Hi-Lo CSA groupings for each delivery method.

Correlations of the mean preference ratings across the CSA groupings are in the range between 0.92 and 0.76 and are shown in Tables 6:7 and 6:8. It is noticeable that the relationship between mean ratings and the WA dimension ratios is slightly looser than for the VI dimension.

Table 6:7 Correlations between mean delivery method preferences ratings by Verbaliser–Imager ratios

CSA Group	Hi-verbal	Mod-verbal	Mod-imager	Hi-imager
Hi-verbal	.	0.923	0.905	0.883
Mod-verbal	0.923	.	0.881	0.824
Mod-imager	0.905	0.881	.	0.891
Hi-imager	0.883	0.824	0.891	.

Table 6:7 Correlations between mean delivery method preferences ratings by Wholist–Analytic ratios

CSA Group	Hi-wholist	Mod-wholist	Mod-analyst	Hi-analyst
Hi-wholist	.	0.824	0.860	0.851
Mod-wholist	0.824	.	0.780	0.797
Mod-analyst	0.860	0.780	.	0.764
Hi-analyst	0.851	0.797	0.764	.

The correlations between each of the different CSA groupings is seen to be high, and this appears to indicate that there is a degree of consistency in allocating the preference ratings by students regardless of their CSA type.

Whilst there appear to be some distinct differences in the mean preference ratings between certain category groups, there is not a consistent pattern of difference, or separation, between each the CSA groupings.

We turn next to examine the pattern of ratings related to helpfulness and cognitive style. The mean ratings for each of the CSA groupings are shown in Table 6:8.

Following this, the rank-order correlations are shown in Tables 6:9 to 6:10.

Table 6:8 The mean delivery method helpfulness ratings by CSA ratio groupings

CSA group	Hi-Verbal	Mod-Verbal	Mod-Imager	Hi-Imager	Mean VI	Hi-Wholist	Mod-Wholist	Mod-Analyst	Hi-Analyst	Mean WA	N=
DM1H	2.59	2.28	2.25	2.42	2.39	2.43	2.20	2.36	2.43	2.36	107
DM2H	2.05	2.18	2.27	2.10	2.15	2.28	2.00	2.03	2.25	2.14	94
DM3H	1.80	1.64	1.88	2.06	1.85	1.89	1.77	1.82	1.87	1.84	62
DM4H	2.55	2.43	2.32	2.52	2.46	2.44	2.33	2.32	2.50	2.40	98
DM5H	1.87	2.20	2.20	2.22	2.12	2.20	2.45	1.78	2.21	2.16	61
DM6H	1.79	1.70	1.77	1.91	1.79	1.94	1.63	1.70	1.81	1.77	90
DM7H	2.00	2.10	1.95	1.95	2.00	2.10	2.07	1.93	1.79	1.97	91
DM8H	2.60	2.52	2.52	2.71	2.59	2.72	2.55	2.42	2.59	2.57	102
DM9H	2.62	2.64	2.65	2.63	2.64	2.74	2.70	2.47	2.64	2.64	105
DM10H	2.40	2.32	2.64	2.50	2.47	2.65	2.19	2.41	2.45	2.43	91
DM11H	2.19	2.22	2.50	2.42	2.33	2.62	2.53	2.00	2.33	2.37	74
DM12H	2.38	2.46	2.44	2.35	2.41	2.60	2.40	2.25	2.19	2.36	67
DM13H	2.06	2.33	2.00	2.39	2.19	2.27	2.23	1.88	2.35	2.18	72
DM14H	1.72	2.25	2.00	2.11	2.02	2.00	1.93	1.92	2.11	1.99	76

Table 6:9 Correlations between mean delivery method helpfulness rating by Verbaliser–Imager ratios

CSA Group	Hi-verbal	Mod-verbal	Mod-imager	Hi-imager
Hi-verbal	.	0.753	0.792	0.824
Mod-verbal	0.753	.	0.783	0.777
Mod-imager	0.792	0.783	.	0.816
Hi-imager	0.824	0.777	0.816	.

Table 6:10 Correlations between mean delivery method helpfulness rating by Wholist–Analytic ratios

CSA Group	Hi-wholist	Mod-wholist	Mod-analyst	Hi-analyst
Hi-wholist	.	0.850	0.852	0.850
Mod-wholist	0.850	.	0.615	0.780
Mod-analyst	0.852	0.615	.	0.800
Hi-analyst	0.850	0.780	0.800	.

In terms of helpfulness to student learning the pattern of ratings is similar to those for preference:

1.	Discussion with colleagues (DM9H)	Mean ratings	2.64
2.	Discussion with the tutor (DM8H)		2.59
3.	Simulated exercises, etc. (DM10H)		2.47
4.	Watching video/film (DM4H)		2.46

The least helpful delivery modes were as follows:

11.	Using learning materials (DM14H)	Mean ratings	2.00
12.	Writing notes and exercises (DM7H)		1.99
13.	Watching 35mm slides (DM3H)		1.85
14.	Reading course notes (DM6H)		1.78

The mean ratings for 'helpfulness' across each CSA dimension showed similar patterns as for the 'preferences'. In DM2H, for example, 'looking at pictures, etc.' the pattern across the VI dimension is an 'inverted-U' with higher mean values linked with moderate CSA ratio scores. Whereas, on the WA dimension there is 'U' distribution with the higher mean scores at the extreme ends of the dimension. Again, the overall picture appears to be a diffuse pattern of relationships of ratings across the various cognitive style types.

Analysis

The data gathered from the Preferences Questionnaire indicated that the distribution of high as opposed to lower ratings on all delivery methods was more diffuse on the 'verbal' dimension than the 'wholist' dimension; the highest and lowest ratings being allocated distributed between 'hi-verbalisers' and 'mod-verbalisers' with the 'imagers' ratings lying in between.

On the 'wholist' dimension, apart from two delivery methods (DM1 and DM5) the 'wholists' tended to rate the other 12 delivery methods more highly than the 'analytics'. It must also be remembered that because of the skewed distribution in this research sample, 'wholists' should be interpreted as being 'less analytic' and that these students generally rated the various methods higher. The exceptions, DM1 ('listening to the lecturer' and 'demonstrations') tended to be more favoured by those who are more 'analytic' for DM5 this is not so clear-cut. Even this distribution does not present a completely clear picture since the 'Hi-analysts' mean ratings tended to be higher than the means for the 'mod-analysts'.

It appears that generally students, regardless of cognitive style type, preferred delivery methods that involved 'moving images' and 'interaction between their tutors and colleagues' than they did of some of the more passive delivery methods, e.g. 'watching slides', 'reading course notes' and 'using learning materials'.

Students rated the use of video more highly than most other methods of delivery. The use of video for teaching, i.e. the showing of training videos, and videos/films of

significant incidents around the world, was given a mean rating of 3.93 (mode 4 ó moderate preference). On this method of delivery there was little difference between the ratings given by verbalisers and imagers. The use of video for feedback/debriefing purposes also received a high mean preference rating of 3.84 (mode 4). Interestingly, the Hi-Imager group rated this method (DM12) much lower (3.47) compared with the Hi-Verbaliser group (4.00).

The preferences for more interactive methods of delivery were not generally clear-cut across the cognitive types. Mod-verbalisers and both hi- and mod-wholists preferred discussions with the tutor and colleagues.

Section summary

An analysis of responses to the questionnaire in relationship to CSA type did not yield any statistically significant associations. This would tend to indicate that there is a more complex relationship between how individuals like to engage in learning new material and their particular cognitive style.

From this data, and the skewed nature of the sample, it is not possible to make any firm links between CSA type and the degree of helpfulness of particular delivery methods for different types of learners.

Delivery methods and learning style (by LSQ types)

We shall now examine the distribution of preference ratings in relation to students' LSQ scores. Table 6:11 shows the distribution of students on the Learning Style dimensions according to their LSQ score band levels, the percentages are shown in brackets.

Table 6:11 Number and percentage (in brackets) of the student sample of LSQ types:

Level / Type	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist
Very Strong	15 (9.0%)	19 (12.0%)	26 (16.0%)	26 (16.0%)
Strong	22 (14.0%)	57 (35.0%)	35 (22.0%)	41 (26.0%)
Moderate	67 (42.0%)	48 (30.0%)	61 (38.0%)	53 (33.0%)
Low	44 (27.0%)	22 (14.0%)	33 (21.0%)	31 (19.0%)
Very Low	13 (8.0%)	15 (9.0%)	6 (4.0%)	10 (6.0%)

The tables (Tables 6:12 to 6:15) on the following pages show the mean delivery preference ratings for each LSQ type and level. A summary of the preference patterns is described after each table.

The mean ratings shown in **bold** represent the highest rating group for each delivery method, the ratings shown in *italics* represent the lowest rating group for that delivery method.

Table 6:12 Mean Preference ratings (Activist)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	3.71	3.73	3.68	3.73	4.00
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	3.20	3.64	3.77	3.80	4.00
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	2.50	3.13	3.10	3.22	3.00
DM4 Watching video/film	3.83	4.19	3.80	3.77	4.14
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	2.33	3.57	3.79	3.50	3.75
DM6 Reading through course notes	2.40	2.91	2.87	2.69	2.83
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	3.00	3.30	3.38	3.07	3.40
DM8 Discussion with tutor	4.00	4.04	4.14	3.93	4.43
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	4.14	4.19	4.20	4.27	4.33
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	3.80	4.09	4.13	4.08	4.00
DM11 Role play exercises	3.75	3.94	3.92	3.82	4.25
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	3.00	3.80	3.97	3.67	3.75
DM13 Library study/researching information	3.67	3.39	3.19	3.42	3.80
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	3.33	3.48	3.21	3.45	3.40

The ratings allocated by activists show a mixed pattern overall. There are some clear associations of high preference ratings being associated with high scores on the activist dimension for some of the delivery methods. For example, the following delivery methods DM2 (Looking at pictures, etc.), DM7 (Writing notes/exercises) though generally rated low, DM9 (Discussion with colleagues) and DM11 (Role-play exercises) were allocated high preference ratings by VS activists and low ratings by VL activists. The reverse pattern, i.e. high mean ratings linked to L or VL activists was not clearly evident in relation to any of the delivery methods.

DM4 -Watching video/film and DM14 -Using learning materials for study purposes were given higher preference ratings by (L) activists but the range of the means was

small; thus suggesting that the mean ratings were similar regardless of LSQ score on this dimension.

The widest range of ratings given by activists was for DM5 (Demonstrations of equipment and floorplans). This method was given a mean rating lying in the Dislike range by the (VL) group but was given ratings in the No particular preference range by the other LSQ score level groups. (See Table 6:13)

Table 6:13 Mean Preference ratings (Reflector)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	3.38	3.73	3.75	3.88	3.50
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	3.63	3.60	3.87	3.80	3.43
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	3.43	2.57	3.18	3.00	3.30
DM4 Watching video/film	3.57	3.80	4.00	4.03	3.86
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	3.57	3.83	3.71	3.61	3.36
DM6 Reading through course notes	2.43	2.78	2.93	2.82	2.83
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	2.88	3.30	3.38	3.15	3.58
DM8 Discussion with tutor	3.57	4.36	4.22	4.06	3.92
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	4.25	4.20	4.41	4.09	4.07
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	4.14	3.78	4.32	3.90	4.15
DM11 Role play exercises	3.86	4.00	4.04	3.74	4.36
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	3.86	3.71	4.05	3.56	3.92
DM13 Library study/researching information	3.50	3.00	3.27	3.27	3.45
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	3.14	2.88	3.38	3.24	3.64

The ratings given by reflectors shows a rather more mixed picture in their relationship between LSQ reflector scores and preferences for delivery method. The highest ratings for each delivery method appear randomly across the VL to VS range. The mean score range across the VL to VS levels are all less than one rating point,

(SD = 0.47). This would suggest that the score level on the α -reflector dimension does not provide an adequate indication of level of preference for methods of delivery.

Only two of the delivery methods, DM7 and DM14, display any relationship; with the highest ratings being associated with VS scores and low ratings associated with VL or L scores. From a knowledge of student characteristics, one would perhaps naturally associate these two methods of delivery with α -reflector types.

Table 6:14 Mean Preference ratings (Theorist)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	4.00	3.71	3.78	3.58	3.80
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	3.67	3.80	3.86	3.39	3.92
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	3.00	3.00	2.76	3.29	3.60
DM4 Watching video/film	3.00	3.84	4.03	3.92	4.07
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	3.00	3.71	3.44	3.62	3.83
DM6 Reading through course notes	3.00	2.39	3.10	2.68	2.92
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	3.00	2.89	3.48	3.16	3.62
DM8 Discussion with tutor	4.67	3.95	4.14	4.09	4.07
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	4.50	4.24	4.28	4.04	4.27
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	4.00	4.17	4.16	3.90	4.07
DM11 Role play exercises	4.00	3.88	4.12	3.80	4.00
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	2.50	4.00	3.62	3.53	4.25
DM13 Library study/researching information	3.33	3.50	3.27	3.20	3.42
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	3.33	3.18	3.42	3.25	3.50

The rating of delivery preferences by α -theorists shows a more distinct pattern in that the (VS) group allocated their highest ratings to seven out of the 14 delivery types but their lowest mean ratings were more randomly distributed. Interestingly, the two

generally most preferred delivery methods were inversely related (DM8 and DM9); the highest ratings being allocated by the VL group. This would appear to indicate a possible negative relationship between these delivery types and theorist types. Three delivery methods, DM4 –Watching video/film, DM5 –Demonstrations, etc. and DM12 –Debriefing exercises using video, showed a relationship between high mean ratings and high LSQ –theorist scores.

In the more general picture, there appeared to be only small differences in ratings given by the VL/VS groupings.

Table 6:15 Mean Preference ratings (Pragmatist)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	3.67	3.84	3.83	3.55	3.73
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	3.67	3.86	3.89	3.71	3.33
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	3.00	2.42	3.40	2.73	3.00
DM4 Watching video/film	3.33	3.88	4.21	3.78	3.73
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	3.20	3.46	3.68	3.60	3.11
DM6 Reading through course notes	2.67	2.53	3.00	3.08	2.38
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	3.00	3.31	3.17	3.33	3.54
DM8 Discussion with tutor	4.50	4.05	4.03	4.15	4.00
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	4.67	4.05	4.30	4.11	4.27
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	4.17	4.18	4.14	4.05	3.85
DM11 Role play exercises	4.20	3.88	3.86	4.11	4.00
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	3.33	3.71	3.94	4.07	3.75
DM13 Library study/researching information	3.20	3.60	3.55	3.41	2.55
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	3.17	3.38	3.50	3.32	3.09

The mean ratings of pragmatists showed no clear pattern of distribution. The range of scores was also small (<1.00) ($SD=0.51$) except for Library study/researching information (DM13), which had a mean score range of 1.05. As with theorists the generally most preferred delivery methods, DM8 and DM9, appeared to be negatively related to pragmatist learning style. A similar inverse pattern was apparent in relation to DM10 Working on simulated exercises.

General findings across all LSQ types would indicate a mixed picture. No overall pattern of relationships appear to exist between the LSQ instrument and students' preferences for delivery methods. However, individual types of delivery did show some level of relationship with different LSQ types.

Helpfulness

The LSQ data related to the degree of helpfulness with learning is shown in the following tables (Tables 6:16 to 6:19)

Table 6:16 Mean Helpfulness ratings (Activist)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	2.43	2.42	2.41	2.27	2.43
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	1.80	2.09	2.21	2.27	2.17
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	2.00	1.87	1.72	2.00	1.75
DM4 Watching video/film	2.50	2.42	2.35	2.46	2.43
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	1.00	2.00	2.36	2.10	2.00
DM6 Reading through course notes	1.40	1.77	1.74	1.85	1.67
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	1.60	2.09	2.03	2.00	1.60
DM8 Discussion with tutor	2.60	2.46	2.55	2.64	2.71
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	2.43	2.56	2.64	2.80	2.83
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	2.60	2.17	2.46	2.77	2.33
DM11 Role play exercises	1.50	2.24	2.25	2.55	2.50
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	2.00	2.07	2.50	2.44	2.25
DM13 Library study/researching information	2.33	2.00	2.13	2.25	2.60
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	2.00	1.67	2.06	2.09	2.20

Unlike the -activist- ratings for -preferences- the distribution of high and low ratings for -helpfulness- showed a random spread across the VL-VS range. The following highly rated delivery methods related to VS -activists- were DM8, DM9, DM13 and DM14. In these, the lowest mean ratings were allocated by L and VL -activists-. In the case of other delivery methods the pattern was not so clear. For example, DM6 and DM11 received the lowest mean ratings by the VL -activists- but the highest

mean ratings were allocated by the S-activists with the VS-activists rating them lower.

Table 6:17 Mean Helpfulness ratings (Reflector)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	2.00	2.27	2.38	2.47	2.57
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	2.25	1.80	2.17	2.28	2.14
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	1.86	1.14	1.88	1.94	1.90
DM4 Watching video/film	2.14	2.10	2.34	2.53	2.57
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	1.86	2.00	2.12	2.33	2.09
DM6 Reading through course notes	1.57	1.67	1.75	1.75	1.83
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	1.75	1.50	2.17	1.92	2.25
DM8 Discussion with tutor	2.57	2.45	2.63	2.48	2.62
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	2.75	2.60	2.66	2.54	2.79
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	2.57	2.11	2.54	2.34	2.54
DM11 Role play exercises	2.29	2.00	2.30	2.39	2.27
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	2.43	2.00	2.38	2.39	2.42
DM13 Library study/researching information	2.50	1.75	2.00	2.27	2.09
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	2.00	1.63	2.00	1.92	2.00

The helpfulness ratings given by reflectors showed little general consistency in relation to the LSQ levels. Only in the case of DM1 and DM6 was there a relationship between high mean ratings and high (VS) LSQ scores. A similar pattern exists for DM4 and DM7, the lowest mean ratings falling within the low (L) LSQ score range.

Table 6:18 Mean Helpfulness ratings (Theorist)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	2.67	2.05	2.47	2.46	2.53
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	2.00	2.05	2.18	2.17	2.31
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	2.00	1.50	1.71	2.07	2.10
DM4 Watching video/film	2.00	2.16	2.44	2.54	2.50
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	2.00	1.93	2.11	2.23	2.33
DM6 Reading through course notes	2.33	1.28	1.94	1.68	1.85
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	1.33	1.68	2.19	2.00	2.08
DM8 Discussion with tutor	3.00	2.35	2.54	2.61	2.67
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	3.00	2.52	2.69	2.67	2.73
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	2.50	2.28	2.58	2.33	2.43
DM11 Role play exercises	2.00	2.13	2.48	2.33	2.15
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	2.50	2.06	2.38	2.33	2.50
DM13 Library study/researching information	2.00	2.22	2.09	2.27	2.08
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	2.00	1.94	1.88	2.00	2.08

The theorists' ratings did not form a consistent pattern across the various LSQ levels.

The two generally popular delivery methods (DM8 and DM9) were given the highest ratings for helpfulness by the VL theorists, but, this was offset by the lowest mean ratings being allocated by the L theorist group, thus making this an inconclusive distribution. The only delivery methods that allocated the highest mean ratings by VS theorists and low ratings by L and VL groups were DM2, DM3 and DM5.

Table 6:19 Mean Helpfulness ratings (Pragmatist)

Delivery method	VL	L	M	S	VS
DM1 Listening to lecturer talking	2.33	2.53	2.40	2.28	2.47
DM2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	2.00	2.43	2.29	1.96	2.07
DM3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	2.00	1.67	1.90	1.40	1.80
DM4 Watching video/film	2.17	2.41	2.61	2.22	2.27
DM5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	2.00	1.92	2.26	1.93	2.11
DM6 Reading through course notes	1.67	1.60	1.88	1.71	1.69
DM7 Writing notes/exercises	1.80	2.00	2.03	1.86	2.15
DM8 Discussion with tutor	2.83	2.53	2.55	2.48	2.60
DM9 Discussion with colleagues	2.83	2.60	2.70	2.43	2.87
DM10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	2.67	2.59	2.43	2.18	2.54
DM11 Role play exercises	2.60	2.38	2.38	1.89	2.55
DM12 Debriefing exercises using video	2.33	2.36	2.44	2.13	2.50
DM13 Library study/researching information	2.20	2.20	2.36	1.94	2.00
DM14 Using learning materials for study purposes	2.00	1.88	1.95	1.95	2.09

The pragmatists did not show any consistent pattern in relation to their ratings on helpfulness. Five of the delivery methods showed a degree of association mostly by the VL group rating more highly than the S or VS group, but again the other groups (L, M, and S) did not show a consistent gradation of ratings between the highest and lowest ratings allocated.

The relationships of the LSQ scores for each dimension were then examined for each of the preference questionnaire items. Table 6:20 shows these correlations for each of the course delivery methods.

Table 6:20 Correlations of LSQ scores with Preference Questionnaire ratings

	Activist		Reflector		Theorist		Pragmatist	
Item	Pref.	Helpf.	Pref.	Helpf.	Pref.	Helpf.	Pref.	Helpf.
DM1	0.071	. 0.038	0.052	0.196*	0.011	0.164*	. 0.015	. 0.034
DM2	0.163*	0.076	. 0.016	0.089	. 0.020	0.098	. 0.109	. 0.091
DM3	0.145	0.066	0.020	0.139	0.178*	0.253**	0.069	. 0.108
DM4	. 0.017	0.012	0.106	0.229**	0.169*	0.145	. 0.006	. 0.045
DM5	0.181*	0.182*	. 0.044	0.173*	0.076	0.172*	0.013	0.048
DM6	0.013	0.076	0.065	0.71	0.076	0.109	0.062	0.032
DM7	. 0.015	. 0.031	0.095	0.141	0.167*	0.181*	0.113	0.045
DM8	0.036	0.073	0.009	0.018	0.027	0.103	. 0.024	. 0.042
DM9	0.059	0.117	. 0.112	. 0.020	. 0.054	0.024	0.009	0.030
DM10	0.051	0.121	. 0.006	0.007	. 0.648	. 0.008	. 0.080	. 0.111
DM11	. 0.002	0.180*	0.060	0.059	0.030	0.024	0.036	. 0.079
DM12	0.005	0.093	. 0.011	0.043	0.119	0.106	0.171*	0.018
DM13	0.005	0.053	0.069	0.012	. 0.043	. 0.037	. 0.118	. 0.074
DM14	. 0.033	0.204*	0.160*	0.046	0.061	0.078	0.009	0.125

N=160

df(N. 2)=158

Critical values: (p<0.05) = 0.159*, (p<0.01) = 0.207**

From this table it appears that many of the delivery methods ratings do not correlate very highly with learning style. Those that show a significant level of association many of them relate to the degree of helpfulness given. As pointed out earlier in the thesis, though some of the correlations show a statistical significance, they are probably not high enough to have a practical significance.

Analysis of results

In general, the range of the ratings allocated by each of the grades (VLóVS) to each of the delivery methods was relatively small. The variance of the ratings given by all types from the Very Low scoring subjects to the Very Strong on each of the delivery methods was less than one except for Q12 and Q 13, which had $s^2=1.17$ and 1.13 respectively.

The largest range of ratings was given to 'Demonstrations of equipment and floorplans'. From the data gathered the VL 'activists' group disliked this method of teaching as compared with the more moderate and strong 'activists'. This level of discrimination was not demonstrated in any of the other delivery methods.

Although there was general preference for 'Discussion with tutor' across all four LSQ types and levels, as indicated by the mean ratings, it is interesting to note that only the VS 'activists' gave it the highest mean rating. The highest mean ratings for the other LSQ types tended to be given by the VL, L and M groups. The pattern of mean ratings distribution for DM9 'Discussion with colleagues' is also similar.

DM1 'Listening to the lecturer talking' was preferred by 'activists' despite it being a more passive type of delivery. Strong 'reflectors' (mean score = 3.88) preferred this method of delivery although it was not as well favoured by Very Strong 'reflectors' (3.50).

There were some unexpected preferences such as DM13 'Library study' which was given a higher mean rating by VS 'activists' (3.80) than by other LSQ types; this was unexpected since library study might not be generally seen as an active form of

learning. However, further examination of what is involved in this method of learning would suggest that it is a more active method than DM1 -listening to the lecturerø

An examination of the correlations between the scores on each LSQ dimension and the -preferenceø and -helpfulnessø ratings of each delivery method did appear to show some statistically significant associations. For example, -demonstrations using equipment etc.ø is deemed to be helpful to -activistsø, -reflectorsø and -theoristsø but not -pragmatistsø it is also a preferred delivery for -activistsø. -Listening to the lecturer talkingø is helpful to -reflectorsø and -theoristsø ($p < 0.05$) but not -activistsø and -pragmatistsø. Ratings of -helpfulnessø in -watching video/filmø appear to be highly associated with studentsø LSQ -reflectorø scores ($p < 0.01$). The -theoristsø ratings of -watching 35mm slides with commentaryø ($p < 0.01$) and -writing notes and exercisesø ($p < 0.05$) would appear to be significantly correlated. -Activistsø scores have a significant association with -helpfulnessø ratings for -role play exercisesø ($p < 0.05$) and -pragmatistsø scores on -preferenceø for -debriefing exercises using videoø have a significant association ($p < 0.05$)

Some further observations about the association of LSQ type and delivery preferences are analysed in the following section in which the methods of delivery categories are reduced to a number of factor categories.

Factor Analysis of the Preferences Questionnaire

The Preferences Questionnaire about training delivery methods, as discussed in Chapter 1, listed the range of teaching and learning activities included within the College's training delivery programme. It was not an easy task to identify specific factors directly from the delivery methods since each of them included several aspects of verbal, visual, practical and interactive teaching and learning.

The diffuse pattern of relationship between cognitive and learning style and their preferences for types of delivery method prompted a search for links with a simpler set of delivery modes. In other words, the delivery methods listed in the questionnaire perhaps obscured the underlying reasons for, and constructs used by, individuals when stating their preferences some methods rather than others.

It was proposed to look at identifying a smaller number of factors that could help to clarify the kinds of activities students prefer to engage in when learning. The data was therefore subjected to a factor analysis in order to explore other possible patterns and to reduce the level of complexity posed by the 14 delivery methods.

The factor analysis of the responses to the Preferences Questionnaire yielded five factors with eigenvalues >1.00 . Within these five factors, only those delivery methods with factor loadings of 0.5 or greater were selected to form the groupings outlined below.

The analysis of the modes of delivery and their relationship to the factors is shown as follows:

Table 6:21 Factor types

Preference		Rank order	=1
		Mean score	(3.93)
Factor 1	(Practical / Interactive activities)	Factor loading	
DM5	Demonstrations using equipment/floorplans etc.	0.514	
DM9	Discussion with colleagues	0.511	
DM10	Working with simulated exercises/case studies	0.851	
DM11	Role play exercises	0.788	
DM12	De-briefing practical exercises using video	0.542	
Preference		Rank order	5
		Mean score	(2.71)
Factor 2	(Academic activities)	Factor loading	
DM6	Reading through course notes/books	0.678	
DM7	Writing notes and exercises about the topic	0.812	
DM14	Using learning materials for study purposes	0.851	
Preference		Rank order	4
		Mean score	(3.39)
Factor 3	(Self-directed activities)	Factor loading	
DM2	Looking at pictures/diagrams illustrating concepts	0.569	
DM3	Watching 35mm slides + commentary	0.604	
DM13	Library study and researching information	0.714	
Preference		Rank order	3
		Mean score	(3.91)
Factor 4	(Group interactive activities)	Factor loading	
DM1	Listening to the lecturer talking	0.803	
DM8	Discussion with the tutor	0.613	
Preference		Rank order	=1
		Mean score	(3.93)
Factor 5	(Moving image activities)	Factor loading	
DM4	Watching video or film	0.897	

The five factors accounted for 67.8% of the variance as follows:

Factor 1	26.2%
Factor 2	13.0%
Factor 3	11.9%
Factor 4	8.9%
Factor 5	7.8%

The correlations of the delivery types with the identified factors are set out in Table

6.22 below:

Table 6:22 Correlation between delivery types and identified factors

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Q1 Listening to lecturer talking	. 0.058	0.094	0.099	0.802**	. 0.038
Q2 Looking at pictures/diagrams	0.316*	. 0.177	0.569**	0.445**	0.245
Q3 Watching 35mm slides with commentary	. 0.121	0.104	0.603**	. 0.125	0.423**
Q4 Watching video/film	. 0.131	0.047	0.043	0.075	0.896**
Q5 Demonstrations . equipment and floorplans	0.514**	. 0.121	0.291*	. 0.311*	0.305*
Q6 Reading through course notes	. 0.099	0.678**	0.181	0.214	. 0.041
Q7 Writing notes/exercises	0.193	0.812**	. 0.028	. 0.093	0.146
Q8 Discussion with tutor	0.407**	0.408**	. 0.206	0.612**	0.185
Q9 Discussion with colleagues	0.511**	0.363**	0.134	0.194	. 0.149
Q10 Working on simulated exercises/case studies	0.851**	0.038	0.165	0.016	. 0.101
Q11 Role play exercises	0.788**	0.044	. 0.012	0.069	. 0.087
Q12 Debriefing exercises using video	0.542**	0.287*	0.112	. 0.410	0.415**
Q13 Library study/researching information	0.316*	0.275*	0.714**	0.012	. 0.196
Q14 Using learning materials for study purposes	0.147	0.620**	0.572**	0.133	0.015

N = 57 Critical values: (p<0.05) = 0.273* (p<0.01) = 0.354** An arbitrary decision to use correlation values of >0.500 was made in selecting the delivery methods for each factor. These are shown in bold figures.

In summarizing these factors, the basic common features are:

Factor 1: Elements of delivery with highly practical and interactive components.

Factor 2: Elements with a more abstract, non-interactive, academic mode of study.

Factor 3: Elements with high visual, but static, features, including self-directed activities.

Factor 4: Elements that are directed by the lecturer, and are interactive and verbally focused.

Factor 5: Elements that include a high level of visual moving images.

The factor transformation matrix is shown in Table 6:23,

Table 6:23 Correlation between the identified factors

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Factor 1	0.694	0.515	0.455	0.163	0.140
Factor 2	. 0.485	0.484	. 0.018	0.713	. 0.150
Factor 3	. 0.475	0.158	0.425	. 0.271	0.704
Factor 4	0.065	. 0.690	0.436	0.555	0.150
Factor 5	0.233	. 0.012	. 0.650	0.289	0.663

Preferences Questionnaire factors by CSA type grouping

The results of the questionnaire in the spreadsheet were then re-analysed by sorting the delivery methods data into the factor groupings. For consistency, the CSA ratio scores were grouped into the four groupings used earlier. Table 6:24 below shows the mean ratings allocated to each factor by CSA type grouping.

Table 6:24 The mean rating value of preferences (out of 5) related to the factors by CSA ratio score grouping

CSA type\Factor	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Mean (SD)
Hi-wholist	4.12	3.39	3.63	4.02	4.06	3.84 (0.318)
Mod-wholist	4.24	3.26	3.46	3.83	4.17	3.79 (0.430)
Mod-analyst	3.71	3.04	3.18	3.97	3.90	3.56 (0.425)
Hi-analyst	4.00	3.11	3.53	4.07	4.00	3.74 (0.414)
Hi-verbal	3.92	2.98	3.34	4.10	4.05	3.68 (0.494)
Mod-verbal	4.05	3.47	3.56	4.08	4.24	3.88 (0.342)
Mod-imager	4.05	3.17	3.34	3.83	3.87	3.65 (0.377)
High-imager	3.83	3.07	3.41	3.88	3.91	3.62 (0.368)
Means	3.99	3.18	3.43	3.92	4.03	
S.D.	0.167	0.174	0.145	0.237	0.132	

Table 6:25 The mean rating value of ‘helpfulness (out of 3) related to the factors by CSA ratio score grouping

CSA type\Factor	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Mean (SD)
Hi-wholist	2.56	2.01	2.14	2.58	2.44	2.35 (0.257)
Mod-wholist	2.46	1.87	2.00	2.38	2.33	2.21 (0.258)
Mod-analyst	2.18	1.85	1.91	2.39	2.32	2.13 (0.241)
Hi-analyst	2.36	1.90	2.16	2.51	2.50	2.29 (0.258)
Hi-verbal	2.29	1.84	1.97	2.60	2.55	2.25 (0.339)
Mod-verbal	2.37	2.02	2.05	2.40	2.43	2.25 (0.201)
Mod-imager	2.49	1.91	2.05	2.39	2.32	2.23 (0.243)
High-imager	2.42	1.99	2.18	2.57	2.52	2.34 (0.245)
Means	2.39	1.92	2.06	2.48	2.43	
S.D.	0.120	0.073	0.096	0.097	0.094	

In terms of practical significance for the training of Fire Service officers the data collected would support training being concentrated on modes of delivery as follows (in order of preference):

Factor 5: Elements that have a high level of visual moving images.

Factor 1: Elements of delivery with highly practical and interactive components.

Factor 4: Elements that are directed by the lecturer and involve interpersonal interaction.

Much less favoured are:

Factor 3: Elements with a high visual, but static, features, and self-directed activities.

Factor 2: Elements with a more abstract, non-interactive, and academic modes of study.

Data related to the helpfulness of modes of delivery in students' learning, the degree of helpfulness follows a similar pattern of relationships to their cognitive style; factor 4 has a slightly higher mean helpfulness rating followed by factor 5.

In detail, an examination of the CSA type preferences data would suggest that 'wholists' (i.e. the less analytic) have high preference for delivery methods included in factor 1, i.e. DM5, DM9, DM10, DM11 and DM12. 'Analytics' allocated their highest mean rating to delivery methods in factor 4; thus suggesting that they prefer delivery methods that involve some degree of interaction and guidance from tutors.

On the CSA 'imager' end of the scale, a higher preference was given for delivery methods in factor 5 (DM4 'watching video...'); but 'moderate-imager' gave higher preference to delivery methods in factor 1 involving practical exercises and demonstrations.

'High-verbalisers' preferred more interactive methods of teaching and learning, whereas 'moderate-verbalisers' gave higher preference to the moving visual materials in factor 5.

From the data on helpfulness it would appear that 'verbalisers' gave a higher mean rating (2.54) to factor 5 delivery methods as compared with 'imagers' though of the CSA types, 'bimodals' found factor 5 relatively least helpful (2.48).

In terms of helpfulness of delivery methods, those in factor 4 (Interactive and tutor-led activities) were preferred across the 'wholist' to 'analytic' dimension except in the case of 'moderate-wholists' who preferred those in factor 1 (practical activities).

On the ÷verbalóimagerødimension, delivery methods in factor 4 were preferred by those at the extremes of the dimension, whereas those in the middle of the distribution preferred either factor 1 (moderate-imagers) or factor 5 (moderate-verbalisers).

An analysis of variance of the CSA and preferences data identified some interaction between the factors linked to the delivery methods and the ÷verbalóimagerødimension. Table 6:26 shows the means and SDs of the preference ratings by factor and by WAóVI dimensions. The WAóVI scores have been divided into high and low groups based on the mean ratio scores on each of the dimensions.

Table 6:26 Analysis of variance of CSA WA–VI dimensions by Factor

Factor 1	Verbaliser	Imager	Factor 2	Verbaliser	Imager
Analyst	3.745 (0.391)	4.025 (0.536)		2.939 (0.611)	3.021 (0.509)
Wholist	4.200 (0.471)	4.182 (0.590)		2.976 (0.722)	3.061 (0.880)
Factor 3	Verbaliser	Imager	Factor 4	Verbaliser	Imager
Analyst	3.273 (0.467)	3.542 (0.619)		4.182 (0.717)	3.813 (0.602)
Wholist	3.476 (0.676)	3.364 (0.640)		3.857 (0.569)	3.636 (0.951)
Factor 5	Verbaliser	Imager	<i>Mean scores (SDs)</i>		
Analyst	3.909 (0.831)	3.563 (0.512)			
Wholist	4.214 (0.802)	3.636 (0.809)			

MANOVA – Verbaliser–Imager by Factor F=2.67 p<0.05

The CSA data used in the earlier tables use the categorical information presented by the software. However, in Table 6:26 this data was recoded so that the Hi- and Lo-groups represent 50% of the sample.

As mentioned earlier, the distribution on the WA dimension was heavily skewed towards the 'analytic' end of the construct pole. The 'wholist' data therefore should be interpreted as being 'less analytic'.

A two-way analysis of variance of factor and 'verbal-imagery' style, and factor and 'wholist-analytic' style was performed on the data. There was no significant effect between factor and 'wholist-analytic' style. However, on the 'verbal-imager' dimension there was a significant effect ($F = 3.64$; $df = 4$; $p = 0.034$).

The mean score differences between the Hi- and Lo- groups for each factor are as follows: Factor 1 = 0.035; Factor 2 = 0.036; Factor 3 = 0.082; Factor 4 = 0.288; Factor 5 = 0.473. The implications of these results are discussed later.

Preferences Questionnaire factors by LSQ type grouping

The results of the questionnaire in the spreadsheet were then re-examined according to the LSQ scores using the data on delivery methods in their factor groupings. The following tables 6:27 to 6:30 show the mean preference ratings across the range of factors for each of the score levels on each of the four LSQ dimensions.

Table 6:27 Mean Preference ratings (Activist)

LSQ Activist	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Mean (SD)
Very low	3.41	2.91	3.12	3.86	3.83	3.43 (0.422)
Low	3.92	3.23	3.39	3.88	4.19	3.72 (0.399)
Moderate	4.00	3.15	3.35	3.91	3.80	3.64 (0.372)
Strong	3.87	3.07	3.48	3.83	3.77	3.60 (0.335)
Very strong	4.02	3.21	3.60	4.21	4.14	3.84 (0.422)
Means	3.84	3.11	3.39	3.94	3.95	
S.D.	0.250	0.130	0.178	0.155	0.202	

Table 6:28 Mean Preference ratings (Reflector)

LSQ Reflector	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Mean (SD)
Very low	3.94	2.82	3.52	3.47	3.57	3.46 (0.405)
Low	3.95	3.07	3.20	3.92	3.79	3.54 (0.466)
Moderate	3.85	3.26	3.34	4.02	4.11	3.72 (0.392)
Strong	4.08	2.95	3.53	3.96	3.93	3.69 (0.463)
Very strong	3.94	3.36	3.37	3.73	3.91	3.66 (0.283)
Means	3.95	3.09	3.39	3.82	3.86	
S.D.	0.082	0.221	0.137	0.224	0.199	

Table 6:29 Mean Preference ratings (Theorist)

LSQ Theorist	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Mean (SD)
Very low	3.73	2.71	3.24	3.75	3.50	3.39 (0.430)
Low	4.09	3.08	3.54	3.92	3.86	3.69 (0.399)
Moderate	3.84	3.22	3.15	3.91	3.98	3.62 (0.401)
Strong	3.85	3.00	3.53	3.88	4.15	3.68 (0.440)
Very strong	4.34	3.66	3.83	4.19	4.00	4.00 (0.272)
Means	3.97	3.13	3.46	3.93	3.90	
S.D.	0.245	0.348	0.270	0.160	0.245	

Table 6:30 Mean Preference ratings (Pragmatist)

LSQ Pragmatist	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Mean (SD)
Very low	3.89	3.00	3.33	4.08	3.38	3.54 (0.440)
Low	3.92	3.10	3.25	3.88	4.17	3.66 (0.463)
Moderate	3.95	3.22	3.56	3.95	3.83	3.70 (0.313)
Strong	3.82	2.98	2.84	3.62	3.69	3.39 (0.446)
Very strong	4.01	3.46	3.42	4.06	3.75	3.74 (0.298)
Means	3.92	3.15	3.28	3.92	3.76	
S.D.	0.070	0.197	0.271	0.186	0.284	

The preference ratings in relation to students' LSQ scores and the factor groupings follow a fairly consistent pattern in one respect, namely, the delivery methods in factor 2 (Academic activities ó reading course notes and using study materials) This factor was given the lowest mean rating values across each of the LSQ dimensions and was not dependent on the LSQ score level. There were just two exceptions to this, namely, -moderate ó theorists and -strong ó pragmatists considered delivery methods in factor 3 (self-directed activities) as being the least preferable.

The moderate to very strong 'activists' appear to have strong preferences for delivery methods in factor groups 1 and 4. These would include preference for practical exercises and role-play and opportunities for interactive and tutor led activities.

Both low and high scorers on the LSQ 'reflector' dimension also gave their highest preference to factor 1 delivery methods, although students in the moderate range gave a stronger preference for the use of video and film followed by group interactive activities.

'Theorists' whose LSQ scores were in the 'moderate' to 'very strong' range, gave their highest preferences to factor 5 and factor 1 delivery methods ó reference to the detail in Table 6:14 would suggest that methods that had a high visual content were preferred.

An analysis of variance of the LSQ data by factor was carried out by comparing each of the LSQ groups (A, R, T and P) according to whether subjects belonged to a high or low (Hi ó Lo) scoring group. These Hi- / Lo- groups were allocated so that 50% of the sample were included above and below the cut-off point. A summary of this data is shown in Table 6:31.

Table 6:31 Mean Preference ratings by LSQ learning style

Factor 1	Lo-Act	Hi-Act	Lo-Refl	Hi-Refl	Lo-Theor	Hi-Theor	Lo-Prag	Hi-Prag
Hi-Act	.	.	3.947	3.900	3.918	3.975	3.825	3.988
Lo-Act	.	.	4.200	4.200	4.262	4.133	4.137	4.311
Hi-Refl	4.200	3.900	.	.	4.125	4.029	4.036	4.091
Lo-Refl	4.200	3.947	.	.	4.045	4.000	3.957	4.107
Hi-Th	4.133	3.975	4.000	4.029	.	.	3.889	4.117
Lo-Th	4.262	3.918	4.045	4.125	.	.	4.050	4.086
Hi-Prag	4.311	3.988	4.107	4.091	4.086	4.117	.	.
Lo-Prag	4.137	3.825	3.957	4.036	4.050	3.889	.	.

Factor 2	Lo-Act	Hi-Act	Lo-Refl	Hi-Refl	Lo-Theor	Hi-Theor	Lo-Prag	Hi-Prag
Hi-Act	.	.	2.965	3.333	2.980	3.208	3.250	2.961
Lo-Act	.	.	2.967	2.956	2.974	2.944	2.875	3.111
Hi-Refl	2.956	3.333	.	.	3.208	2.929	2.879	3.182
Lo-Refl	2.967	2.965	.	.	2.894	3.190	3.048	2.889
Hi-Th	2.944	3.208	3.190	2.929	.	.	3.037	3.000
Lo-Th	2.974	2.980	2.894	3.208	.	.	2.938	3.024
Hi-Prag	3.111	2.961	2.889	3.182	3.024	3.000	.	.
Lo-Prag	2.875	3.250	3.048	2.879	2.938	3.037	.	.

Factor 3	Lo-Act	Hi-Act	Lo-Refl	Hi-Refl	Lo-Theor	Hi-Theor	Lo-Prag	Hi-Prag
Hi-Act	.	.	3.421	3.611	3.373	3.667	3.417	3.490
Lo-Act	.	.	3.367	3.467	3.462	3.389	3.354	3.556
Hi-Refl	3.467	3.611	.	.	3.625	3.405	3.394	3.576
Lo-Refl	3.367	3.421	.	.	3.333	3.619	3.333	3.467
Hi-Th	3.389	3.667	3.619	3.405	.	.	3.296	3.611
Lo-Th	3.462	3.373	3.333	3.625	.	.	3.396	3.429
Hi-Prag	3.556	3.490	3.467	3.576	3.429	3.611	.	.
Lo-Prag	3.354	3.417	3.333	3.394	3.396	3.296	.	.

Table 6:31 (continued) Mean Preference ratings by LSQ learning style

Factor 4	Lo-Act	Hi-Act	Lo-Refl	Hi-Refl	Lo-Theor	Hi-Theor	Lo-Prag	Hi-Prag
Hi-Act	.	.	3.895	4.083	3.853	4.125	4.188	3.824
Lo-Act	.	.	3.650	3.867	3.692	3.875	3.781	3.778
Hi-Refl	3.867	4.083	.	.	3.688	4.071	3.864	4.000
Lo-Refl	3.650	3.895	.	.	3.818	3.786	3.964	3.667
Hi-Th	3.875	4.125	3.786	4.071	.	.	4.111	3.875
Lo-Th	3.692	3.853	3.818	3.688	.	.	3.813	3.750
Hi-Prag	3.778	3.824	3.667	4.000	3.750	3.875	.	.
Lo-Prag	3.781	4.188	3.964	3.864	3.813	4.111	.	.

Factor 5	Lo-Act	Hi-Act	Lo-Refl	Hi-Refl	Lo-Theor	Hi-Theor	Lo-Prag	Hi-Prag
Hi-Act	.	.	3.737	3.833	3.647	4.000	3.500	3.882
Lo-Act	.	.	3.800	4.000	3.846	4.000	4.063	3.667
Hi-Refl	4.000	3.833	.	.	3.750	4.071	4.273	3.636
Lo-Refl	3.800	3.737	.	.	3.727	3.857	3.571	3.933
Hi-Th	4.000	4.000	3.857	4.071	.	.	4.111	3.917
Lo-Th	3.846	3.647	3.727	3.750	.	.	3.750	3.714
Hi-Prag	3.667	3.882	3.933	3.636	3.714	3.917	.	.
Lo-Prag	4.063	3.500	3.571	4.273	3.750	4.111	.	.

Of the various paired groupings, only the $\text{reflector} \times \text{pragmatist}$ by factor association reached a statistical level of significance, see Table 6:32.

Table 6:32 Analysis of variance of Reflectors by Pragmatists by Factor

Factor 1	Lo-Reflector	Hi-Reflector	Factor 2	Lo-Reflector	Hi-Reflector
Hi-Pragmatist	4.138 (0.424)	4.033 (0.608)		3.133 (0.745)	3.111 (0.720)
Lo-Pragmatist	3.957 (0.509)	4.050 (0.560)		3.019 (0.478)	3.111 (0.823)

Factor 3	Lo-Reflector	Hi-Reflector	Factor 4	Lo-Reflector	Hi-Reflector
Hi-Pragmatist	4.468 (0.676)	3.462 (0.569)		3.875 (0.778)	4.000 (0.643)
Lo-Pragmatist	3.333 (0.489)	3.444 (0.757)		3.955 (0.739)	3.825 (0.694)

Factor 5	Lo-Reflector	Hi-Reflector	
Hi-Pragmatist	4.000 (0.633)	3.880 (0.646)	<i>Means (SDs)</i>
Lo-Pragmatist	3.750 (0.967)	4.200 (0.834)	

MANOVA – Reflector by Pragmatist by Factor $F=3.16$; $df=188$; $p<0.05$

Although, a visual inspection of the data suggests that in the case of factor 5, the means of the Hi-reflectors and Lo-pragmatists and vice versa (Hi-pragmatists and Lo-reflectors) are similar, this pattern of means is not clearly identifiable in the case of the other factors.

One should note that the means in these tables do not match those in Tables 6:27 to 6:30 owing to the different groupings. In the earlier tables, the data is grouped according to the five levels of strength based on the normative criteria of the LSQ Handbook (Honey and Mumford, 1986). Table 6:31 is based on recoding each dimension as follows: Lo-activist scores 0 to 8, Hi-activist 9 to 20; Lo-reflector 0 to 14, Hi-reflector 15 to 20; Lo-theorist 3 to 13, Hi-theorist 14 to 20, and Lo-pragmatist 5 to 13, Hi-pragmatist 14 to 20.

Discussion

Data from the Preferences Questionnaire has provided a general picture of what teaching and learning conditions students prefer. Whilst the delivery methods included in the questionnaire have not covered the complete range of options that are generally available in many institutions, the ones included do represent what the Fire Service College offers in the current programme. One of the main problems with using these categories for this research has been the trade-off between using a larger number of categories that could have been kept more conceptually discrete, and a smaller number of categories that were conceptually more complex. The latter option was selected as an expedient way of making the preferences questionnaire easier to complete for students who had a crowded coursework schedule. The response rate overall for the questionnaire returns was 102 out of 174 (58.6%). Whilst this was a workable sample for some of the groupings, the group sizes were much reduced when looking at multiple relations between preferences and learning/cognitive style types. This has meant that the possible significance of findings has been reduced.

Despite this state of affairs, the general picture gathered so far suggests that delivery methods in factors 2 and 3 (academic study and self-directed study options) are the least preferred options for FSC students. Although the students in the sample tend towards the α -analytic pole of the WA (CSA) dimension and tend to be stronger on the α -reflector dimension of the LSQ, one might tend to expect that they would have a preference for self-directed learning activities in a mainly solitary situation; From this evidence this appears not to be so.

However, the general preference for interactive and practical activities would suggest that FSC students enjoy learning in group situations and find them more helpful.

The DCC course programme does involve a substantial amount of group work apart from the direct teaching aspects of the course. The homogeneity of the DCC student sample has, however, not enabled any strong conclusions to be drawn with regard to a wider linkage between cognitive style and their preferences for course delivery. The predominance of 'analytics' in the sample and the scarcity of 'wholists' has meant that comparisons have had to be based on degrees of 'analytic-ness'. Therefore, further samples covering a wider range of styles would be needed before any conclusions could be made.

The high correlations of preference ratings between the various CSA groupings would again reinforce the view that this particular sample is quite homogeneous. But in terms of students' cognitive style and their ratings of the five factors, an ANOVA indicated there was some significant effect between 'factor' and the 'verbal/imager' dimension ($F=2.67$; $df=192$; $p<0.05$;) but no similar effect was observed on the 'wholist/analytic' dimension. Exactly where the interactive effect of VI style on factor lies can probably be gained from Table 6:22 where the rating 'slope' tends to increase from 'imager' to 'verbaliser' on factor 4 (activities that are tutor directed/involve interpersonal interaction).

An ANOVA on the Factors and the LSQ identified a significant effect of 'reflector' and 'pragmatist' by Factor ($F=3.16$; $df=188$; $p<0.05$). Looking at the associations between LSQ scores and preference ratings for each of the other learning style in the

tables above (Tables 6:24 to 6:27), the range of mean ratings show a degree of uniformity.

The correlations between LSQ type and delivery method factors are generally low (range 0.09 to 0.17). From this information, and the similar findings regarding the Cognitive Styles Analysis, one could begin to question whether there is an association between learning style and the way the environment presents the learning situation, i.e. the way material is presented. It would appear that one needs to look more closely at the type of processing and adaptation that individuals adopt when faced with a variety of learning stimuli.

The factor analysis of the LSQ, described earlier, suggested that this instrument had two major types rather than four – action and analysis (Allinson and Hayes, 1990) – and that in the current research the action dimension appears to be associated with the pragmatist style (rather than the activist as suggested by Allinson and Hayes), and the analysis dimension with the reflector style.

From this analysis there appears to be some interaction between hi-reflectors and lo-pragmatists and lo-reflectors and hi-pragmatists. This would tend to suggest that those students who are more reflective would also tend to be less active in the pragmatic sense; they are perhaps thinkers rather than doers.

Summary

This chapter describes the data findings resulting from the Preferences Questionnaire, which was devised to gather students' views of training delivery methods used at the Fire Service College. The questionnaire requested information on two aspects of students' responses to methods of delivery; firstly their likes and dislikes, and secondly their views on how helpful each method was for their own learning.

The data gathered was used and analysed in several different ways; firstly to rank order the delivery methods, secondly to search for associations with learning style and cognitive style and thirdly to look for what factors could simplify the number of training delivery mode types.

The preferences revealed that activities involving interaction between peers and with the tutors were highly preferred; as were activities that involved role-play and simulated exercises and case studies. The least preferred modes of delivery were those that involved learning from self-study material, books and looking at illustrations on 35mm slides.

The methods of course delivery that were found to be most helpful to students' learning were again the opportunities for interaction between peers and their tutors followed by the use of video material. The least helpful methods were again the use of self-study material and reading books and course notes.

The relationships between cognitive style and course delivery preferences were statistically inconclusive except in the case of three items. These items include

‘watching 35mm slides’ which showed a significant correlation with ‘imager’ strength on the VI dimension; ‘writing notes and exercises’ correlated with the more ‘wholist’ students (or, conversely this was disliked by ‘analysts’ who make up the largest group in the sample); and ‘role play exercises’ were preferred by the more ‘wholist’ students and the more ‘imager’ types.

In terms of ‘helpfulness’ correlations were not as significant. The ‘demonstration using equipment/floorplans’ method of delivery was found to be more ‘helpful’ to ‘imager’ types, as were ‘role play exercises’ and ‘using learning materials for study purposes’ but only to a lesser extent.

The LSQ score relationships showed some significant levels of association with particular methods of delivery. More significant correlations were found with respect to ratings for ‘helpfulness’ than for ‘preferences’. High levels of association for both ‘preference’ and ‘helpfulness’ were found in the following cases:

- Theorists and ‘watching 35mm slides’
- Activists and ‘demonstrations using equipment/floorplans’
- Theorists and ‘writing notes and exercises’

A factor analysis of the delivery mode types preference ratings identified two strong factors and three further factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00.

The factors were characterized by the following descriptions:

- Factor 1: Practical and interactive activities
- Factor 2: Academic activities
- Factor 3: Self-directed activities

- Factor 4: Group interactive activities
- Factor 5: Moving image delivery methods (e.g. video)

Having identified these five main areas of training delivery types, their associations with CSA and LSQ types were explored. A two-way ANOVA identified a significant effect between factor 4 and verbaliser/imager cognitive style. A significant effect was also found between factor 5 and LSQ reflector and pragmatist dimensions.

CHAPTER 7

Analysis of CSA response data

Overview

In this part of the report, the data obtained from the CSA data files is analysed and described. The CSA data files provide evaluation statistics about subject responses. The information contained therein includes subjects' response times and an indication as to whether they gave a correct/incorrect response for each question. A more detailed analysis of the data aims at exploring different rates of processing by both CSA type and by LSQ type.

During an early examination of the data-files, it was noticed that responses to some questions took considerably longer to process than others and this prompted the question as to why this should be so. Following on from this was a question as to whether speed of processing, as measured by the CSA instrument, could yield other patterns in relation to an individual's score profile on the Learning Styles Questionnaire data.

The data files

The main details of the data gathering methods have been covered in Chapter 1 but a few further comments are pertinent to this part of the research study.

The responses made by subjects using the CSA instrument are recorded in a text file (i.e. ASCII format). Each new subject using the CSA has their data appended to the file, rather than creating a new file for each subject. Periodically the data files were transferred to a copy file and the original erased; this was done to prevent the data file becoming excessively long and accumulated data from other casual users becoming interspersed amongst the target student data. The copied ASCII files were then imported into a spreadsheet; the data being in a comma delimited format each comma prompting the software to position each piece of datum in a separate cell.

The data contain not only the response times to each question but also a summary for each subject that includes the mean scores for both positive and negative exemplar questions as well as the ratio for both WA and VI dimensions.

A range of spreadsheets was constructed to present Verbal/Imager data separately from Wholist/Analytic data. The subjects' data were also sorted into their CSA groupings (169) in order to identify any emerging relationships. The data were also sorted according to subjects' scorings on the LSQ instrument. The five gradings on each LSQ dimension (Very Strong to Very Low) were reduced to three (Hi-group, Moderate and Lo-group) for the purpose of this analysis. The analysis was similarly used to identify any emergent patterns.

During the first week of their course, the Divisional Command Course (DCC) students have an IT familiarisation course, in which the tool skills of wordprocessing and using spreadsheets are demonstrated; these are the particular pieces of software that they will need to produce their own management study project (MSP) reports. It is during this part of the course that they have access to computers and they are introduced to the CSA software, the results of which are then used later in their course on sessions entitled, 'Understanding yourself' and 'Understanding people'.

After students have been introduced to the CSA software, and the reasons for using it, they are instructed to enter their name and student registration number, if known. During the early stages of the research, however, some of the students were either reluctant to provide their names on the grounds of confidentiality, or they were somehow averse to treating the exercise seriously. Since some students on these earlier cohorts had used pseudonyms, it was difficult to pair up CSA data for analysis with that of other instruments used. To complicate matters further, the data files also contained information about students attending other courses. Students on the other courses were not required to provide data using the LSQ and neither were they given the Preferences Questionnaire to complete.

Some interesting reactions were received about the CSA software particularly about its face validity. Much of this seemed to be based on views about the degree of sophistication of the information that could be obtained from the instrument compared with the simplicity of the questions. For some students the instrument's very simplicity was met with a less than serious response.

Careful inspection of the data file printouts was helpful in identifying those who had responded with a less than positive attitude; these students' responses exhibited erratic patterns of correct/incorrect responses and was frequently linked with very fast repeated key pressing (i.e. very short key pressing response times). Data from these subjects were deleted from the spreadsheet and the data was disregarded.

Also, a certain amount of incomplete data had to be stripped out initially in order to perform an analysis of the data; incomplete data sets could not be used in conjunction with other matched sets. Some data sets were incomplete; this being due to some individuals, for one reason or another, who did not respond to one or other of the instruments used in this study.

During the research period, new IT equipment was installed in the computer training suite. For some reason during the installation of the CSA software on the new equipment, the data file from one of the previous PCs had been copied over on to all the new PCs. A subsequent examination of the new data files revealed a wholesale duplication of data. Some considerable effort was expended in identifying and eliminating duplicate sets of data. Finally, a total of 174 subjects provided usable data from the CSA data files. However, when pairing up this data with students who had also completed the Learning Styles Questionnaire, the remaining matched sets of data produced a much reduced sample size of 83.

The remainder of this chapter will examine the general findings from the total set of data (N=159) and in particular at the relationships of processing speeds and Cognitive Style type. Next, there is an examination of the relationships between the processing speeds and the LSQ types (N=83). This later study was prompted by other research (Furnham, Jackson, *et al* 1997; Riding and Wigley 1997) that examined a possible correlation between *impulsivity* as measured on the Eysenck measures of personality (EPP and EPQ-R respectively) and cognitive and learning style.

This present sub-study therefore aimed at looking particularly at the differences in processing speed of LSQ Activists; since there was a reported link between Activists (LSQ) and Psychoticism ($r = 0.46$ on the EPP, and $r = 0.38$ on the EPQ). The Psychoticism superfactor includes the factor *impulsive*, which correlates highly with Activist ($r = 0.57$) but negatively with Theorist ($r = -0.39$) and Pragmatist ($r = -0.28$) (Furnham et al, 1997).

In contrast to these research findings, Jones (1997) discusses the 'wholist'analytic' dimension in contrast with the 'reflection'impulsive'construct and suggests that the WóA construct dimension is less value laden in the sense that an individual's placement at either end of the dimension does not put them at a disadvantage as compared with their position on the RóI construct. On the latter construct, an individual who is assessed as being at the 'impulsive'end of the construct is frequently considered to be socially, and educationally, at a disadvantage.

In this current study it is proposed to consider whether there is a quantitative link, i.e. in terms of processing speed, between the WóA dimension and 'impulsivity', since it

would appear from the discussion of research quoted above that the qualitative aspects of the WóA and RóI constructs are not exactly parallel. Since a direct measure of impulsivity was not included in this study, some other indirect measure, and therefore a certain amount of inference, was used to examine the correlations between the WóA (CSA) dimension and the ðactivistð dimension of the LSQ; the premise being that the latter appeared to correlate with ðimpulsivityð (Furnham et al, op. cit.).

Finally, there are some specific items of note that relate to individual questions within the CSA. Research by Collins and Quillian (1969) predicted that processing time was dependent on *semantic distance*. They found that processing speed increased in duration according to the *semantic distance* of a subject from its ðpredicateð within a semantic network. This is probably best described in terms of how the name of a specific object relates to a higher order concept label. For example, ðdogð and ðmammalð as compared with ðdogð and ðanimalð. As all mammals are animals but not all animals are mammals, the label ðanimalð is a higher order concept than ðmammalð.

However, the processing time of these two may differ not so much because of their semantic distance but the degree of familiarity of use, or in some respects their ðtypicalityð. Malt and Smith, (1984). reported that processing time was also found to be related to the degree of typicality of a conceptual stereotype that an object possessed. On this basis, the term ðanimalð is probably found to be in more common usage than ðmammalð.

Another aspect that might account for differential processing time is the degree to which things are experienced and encoded in memory by their perceptual or functional attributes. Where a question is focused on the perceptual attributes of an object and the individual has ~~encoded~~ the object by its functional attributes, there is possible delay or error in supplying the answer (Tabossi, 1996).

Summary comparisons of the Total Data collected from the research sample

The data files created by the CSA software, as mentioned above, were imported into spreadsheets for analysis. Three separate samples were collected, which in total provided 159 sets of data after the removal of duplicate data sets. The first sample was analysed for information on the Verbal/Imager dimension only since this aspect of communication was more clearly linked to the kinds of delivery styles (Visual/Verbal) sampled by the Preferences Questionnaire.

In the first sample, the students providing CSA data included not only Divisional Command Course students but also Control Officer Course members. As this data was collected in the very early stages of the research project, the information was only examined in terms of the CSA categories and the types of students used as subjects. There was, however, a noticeable difference in CSA profiles between the Control Officers and the Divisional Command students. Amongst Control Officers the predominant type was Analytic Bimodal, (almost 32%). Between 10% and 15% were fairly evenly distributed along the WholistóAnalytic dimension as ðwholisticóimagersø ðintermediateóimagersø and ðanalyticóimagersø. Along the same dimension between 5% and 10% were Verbalisers, but 0% were Intermediates.

As the sample size of the Control Officers at that stage was relatively small, no further analysis was carried out. The later samples of additional Control Officer students were insufficiently large to continue studying the CSA profiles of different officer groups in this research study. The majority of the Control Officers were female but, due to the small numbers overall, no conclusions could be drawn

regarding the sex differences and their relationships to CSA type profile and processing speed. These data were not analysed further.

The number of complete data sets in this part of the research study was finally based on 174 students' responses.

The main area of interest rested on the response times recorded on the 'verbal' imager dimension. Table 7:1 shows the average response times in 100ths of a second (the standard deviations are shown in brackets) for the whole sample, this includes students who were on courses other than the Divisional Command Course. The verbal and imager items are tabulated separately. The table also shows the longest and shortest response times for each group

Table 7:1 Mean processing times (in hundredths of a second) for Verbalisers and Imagers – for items on the Verbal/Imager dimension

	Verbal items				Imager items			
	Verbalisers	Bimodals	Imagers	All types	Verbalisers	Bimodals	Imagers	All types
Mean (SD)	584 (1707)	502 (1129)	609 (1288)	567 (1417)	436 (357)	386 (312)	442 (435)	423 (373)
Longest	32137	24831	25418	32137	6551	8091	8067	8091
Shortest	71	103	103	71	87	92	16	16
Range	32066	24728	25315	32066	6464	7999	8051	8075

(Data taken from spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS – VI-data-2 – p. 13: See Appendix 3)

Due to the presence of some extreme values in processing times that probably skew the means unduly, the data in the following table (Table 7:2) shows the Median values so that comparisons can be made and they also may represent a more realistic figure. The effect of the extreme values mainly affects the Verbaliser items.

Table 7:2 Median processing times (in hundredths of a second) for Verbalisers and Imagers – for items on the Verbal/Imager dimension

	Verbal items				Imager items			
	Verbalisers	Bimodals	Imagers	All types	Verbalisers	Bimodals	Imagers	All types
Median (SD)	365 (1707)	334 (1129)	391 (1288)	363 (1417)	346 (357)	323 (312)	351 (435)	341 (373)
Longest	32137	24831	25418	32137	6551	8091	8067	8091
Shortest	71	103	103	71	87	92	16	16
Range	32066	24728	25315	32066	6464	7999	8051	8075

(Data taken from spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS – VI-data-2 – p. 14: See Appendix 3)

Looking at this data overall, it can be seen that subjects of all types on the VerbaliseróImager dimension take longer to process Verbal items than the Imager items. If one considers the means rather than the median values for the groupings, there appears to be about 1 ó 1.5 seconds more time required to process a Verbal item as opposed to an Imager item. (Using the median values, the difference is about 0.22 of a second.) There is also a greater variation in the response times for verbal

items than imager items; for all verbal items SD 1417.2 (range 32055.0), compared with Imager items SD 373.5 (range 8075.0).

This differential between the processing times is the main basis on which the CSA instrument analyses an individual's type on the 'verbaliser'/'imager' axis and therefore the results are not surprising.

Since these findings were not unexpected, focus of attention was then turned towards the processing speeds recorded for individual questions. It was at this stage in the analysis that it was noticed that one of the 'verbal/imagery' questions appeared to take appreciably longer to process.

There did not appear to be any particular reason, from an examination of the item content, that could account for this apparent anomaly; but, some further details and hypotheses will be introduced later in the chapter.

As it was thought possible that the first sample data might be untypical, a further sample was analysed. The data in the second sample followed a similar pattern to the first sample, particularly in relation to the specific question identified during analysis of the first sample. A third sample was then taken, thus making a total sample of 174 sets of data.

There are unexplained circumstances to account for 11 responses to a single question (15) that exceeded 20,000 hundredths of a second. The effect of these responses is disproportionately large on the means on the verbal items in that they add some 2

seconds to the means as compared with the median values. A comparison between the means and the median values for the *imagers* items is on average less than 100 hundredths of a second.

A comparison of responses across the sample as a whole, it is noticeable that *imagers* take longer to process both verbal and imager items than do *verbalisers* and *bimodals*. One hypothesis that might explain this difference in response times, but would require further research, is that the response times for verbal items depend on the *conceptual or semantic distance* between the pairs of words used and the higher order concept that links them. The response time would also appear to depend on the speed of availability of higher order concepts, or the type of mental models available. (Collins & Quillian (1969), Malt and Smith (1984) and Tabozzi, P. (1996) p.19634; in Oakhill and Garnham (1996))

Another reason might be that *verbal* items, are qualitatively different from *imager* items in terms of the processing power required to respond to them, and therefore response times are quantitatively different. The former require the respondents to have a variety and range of higher order concepts available, whereas the latter require discrimination on only one attribute, namely colour.

Though colour is a highly visible attribute, and readily understood (except perhaps by people with colour blindness), one might question whether colour adequately represents the range of visual attributes that *imagers* use?

In order to clarify this matter as to whether colour adequately sampled the visual representation aspects in the CSA instrument, some further information about the origins and standardisation of the instrument was requested¹. The response given was that during the development phase of the CSA instrument other attributes of a 'visual' nature, e.g. 'size' were sampled in the trial versions of the software. However, out of the range of visual attributes used in the questions, colour was found to discriminate more highly than the other attributes. Therefore questions sampling other visual attributes that were found not to discriminate between 'verbalisers' and 'imagers' were removed from the final selection.

A further question that arose from this data was, why do 'verbalisers' appear to be able to process 'imager' items slightly faster than 'imagers' despite having to process information in what is presumably their non-preferred or weaker modality? One possibility is that the 'imager' items are presented in a verbal mode (i.e. their preferred mode) but also require processing at a visual level.

Let us look now at the response times of respondees but this time according to their type on the 'wholist'/'analytic' dimension. Table 7:3 shows their response times to verbal and imager items. Although in the initial studies of the relationship between the 'wholist'/'analytic' and 'verbal'/'imager' dimensions show a near zero correlation.

¹ Information from Dr Richard Riding

Table 7:3 Mean processing times (in hundredths of a second) for Wholists and Analysts – for items on the Verbal/Imager dimension

	Verbal items				Imager items			
	Analysts	Intermed	Wholists	All types	Analysts	Intermed	Wholists	All types
Mean (SD)	633 (1698)	476 (731)	363 (516)	567 (1417)	448 (381)	396 (388)	309 (151)	423 (373)
Highest	32137	18840	6717	32137	8091	8067	1346	8091
Lowest	71	103	109	71	16	93	92	16
Range	32066	18737	6608	32066	8075	7974	1254	8075

(Data taken from spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS – VI-data-2 – p. 13: See Appendix 3)

Due to the presence of some extreme values in processing times that probably skew the means unduly, the data in the following table (Table 7:4) shows the Median values for comparisons to be made. The effect of the extreme values mainly affects the Verbaliser items.

Table 7:4 Median processing times (in hundredths of a second) for Wholists and Analysts – for items on the Verbal/Imager dimension

	Verbal items				Imager items			
	Analysts	Intermed	Wholists	All types	Analysts	Intermed	Wholists	All types
Median (SD)	389 (1698)	334 (732)	275 (517)	363 (1417)	367 (382)	307 (388)	279 (152)	341 (374)
Highest	32137	18840	6717	32137	8091	8067	1346	8091
Lowest	71	103	109	71	16	93	92	16
Range	32066	18737	6608	32066	8075	7974	1254	8075

(Data taken from spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS – VI-data-2 – p. 14: See Appendix 3)

From this data, it appears that 'wholists' have slightly faster processing times compared with 'analysts' on both 'verbal' and 'imager' items. It is interesting to note that the average processing speed for 'intermediates' was not faster on 'verbal' or 'imager' items as compared with both 'analysts' and 'wholists' unlike 'bimodals' who probably have the flexibility to process in either mode.

From this tabulation, on both ðverbalø and ðimagerø items, it can be seen that ðanalystsø take longer to process the information used in the CSA instrument and this could probably be due to the tendency for ðanalystsø to examine the problem situation in more detail and take more time to make decisions (Riding and Rayner 1998, p.121).

There were other differences between the response timings on the ðverbalø items than on the ðimagerø items. Probably the most noticeable aspect is the degree to which ðanalystsø and ðwholistsø differ in their processing speeds. Analystsø average processing times covered a range from 132 to 923 hundredths of a second on the ðverbalø items and a range of 132 to 3866 hundredths of a second on ðimagerø items, whereas ðwholistsø had a range of 153 to 387 hundredths of a second on ðverbalø items and a range of 125 to 796 hundredths of a second on ðimagerø items.

The difference in processing speeds for ðintermediatesø is more equally balanced between the ðverbalø and ðimagerø items and the dispersion is not so great as for ðanalystsø, this may be due to the point raised above.

Let us now look at the ðwholistøanalyticø items. This section shows a similar analysis of processing times. The items in the CSA instrument involve two types of question, (1) to judge whether a pair of geometrical figures were the same or different, and (2) to identify whether a single geometrical figure is contained within a more complex figure.

Table 7:5 Mean processing times (in hundredths of a second) for Verbaliser and Imagers – for items on the Wholist/Analytic dimension

	Wholist items				Analytic items			
	Verbalisers	Bimodals	Imagers	All types	Verbalisers	Bimodals	Imagers	All types
Mean (SD)	434 (352)	456 (513)	430 (215)	440 (378)	277 (159)	282 (214)	279 (89)	279 (378)
Highest	1670	2183	1068	2183	1072	1046	647	1072
Lowest	108	103	110	103	108	100	101	100
Range	1562	2080	958	2080	964	946	546	972

(Data taken from spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS – WA-data-2 – p.11: See Appendix 3)

Table 7:6 Mean processing times (in hundredths of a second) for Wholists and Analysts – for items on the Wholist/Analytic dimension

	Wholist items				Analytic items			
	Analysts	Interms	Wholists	All types	Analysts	Interms	Wholists	All types
Mean (SD)	514 (67)	344 (304)	172 (67)	440.0 (378)	290 (376)	273 (304)	206.5 (67)	280 (378)
Highest	2183	1347	342	2183.0	1072.0	867.0	413.0	1072.0
Lowest	148	132	103.0	103.0	100.0	108.0	101.0	100.0
Range	2035	1215	239.0	2080.0	972.0	759.0	312.0	972.0

(Data taken from spreadsheet CSASAMPT.XLS – WA-data-2 – p. 11: See Appendix 3)

Whilst the measurement of processing speed is fundamental to the CSA instrument and the classification of cognitive style type (as in Table 7:6), it is interesting to note that there is not a large difference between the mean response and processing time between verbalisers and imagers on the wholist/analytic questions (Table 7:5). This would tend to confirm the view that the verbaliser/imager dimension is independent of the wholist/analyst dimension.

A further question that arose during the research was to what degree does processing speed relate to other measures of style, for example learning style as assessed by the LSQ? This will be examined in the next section.

LSQ Types and processing speeds

Out of the total data collected, some 83 paired sets of data (CSA and LSQ) were available for analysis. It was difficult to pair up the remaining sets since subjects, particularly early users of the CSA, used pseudonyms when logging on. Although the quantity of data was reduced, it was possible to obtain a limited picture of the relationship between LSQ type and processing speed. A decision was taken to look at the extreme groups from each of the LSQ types. These were designated *Hi* and *Lo* groups. The *Hi* group comprised the LSQ scores that were allocated to the Strong/Very Strong and the *Lo* group to scores with Low/Very Low classifications.

Tables 7:7 and 7:8 show the Mean processing speeds for the four LSQ types on the CSA Wholist/Analytic dimension and the Verbaliser/Imager dimension.

Table 7:7 LSQ Mean response times on Wholist/Analytic dimension

LSQ group	Activist		Reflector		Theorist		Pragmatist	
	W	A	W	A	W	A	W	A
Wholist/Analytic								
Hi-group (LSQ)	540	323	498	326	498	311	485	311
Lo-group (LSQ)	469	317	401	269	531	304	394	268

Table 7:8 LSQ Mean response times on Verbaliser/Imager dimension

Verbal/Imager	Activist		Reflector		Theorist		Pragmatist	
	V	I	V	I	V	I	V	I
Hi-group	523	411	609	432	605	423	540	407
Lo-group	662	420	516	393	635	443	702	428

These results show some differences in processing speed between LSQ types but only on the verbally orientated questions.

Earlier in this chapter it was proposed that *activists* may be more *impulsive* and therefore may react to the questions faster than other *learning style* types. An examination of these two tables does not appear to give a clear answer to this hypothesis. On the *wholist-analytic* questions there is no immediately apparent relationship between mean processing time and *learning style* type. *Activists* responses to the *verbal-imager* questions on the other hand do show some faster response times as compared with other types, e.g. *Hi-group* activists and both verbal and imager style questions. *Hi-activists* appear to process verbal questions about 21% faster than *Lo-activists*. On *imager* questions the difference is not so great, 0.08 of a second difference.

It might be expected that high *reflector* type would take longer to process information. On verbal questions the difference between the *Hi-* and *Lo-* group means is 0.94 of a second, i.e. *Hi-reflectors* take 18% longer than *Lo-reflectors*.

The largest difference in mean processing speed for *verbal* questions appears to be for *pragmatists*; the mean for *hi-pragmatists* is 1.63 seconds faster than for *Lo-pragmatists* (some 23% faster). The difference between the *Hi-* and *Lo-* group response times was found to be significant ($p=0.047$).

Overall, the *activists* and *pragmatists* show a tendency to respond slightly more rapidly than the *reflectors* and *theorists*, although they are not statistically significant. Further research would be necessary to explore why these differences exist. Could it be that *reflectors* and *theorists* have a more elaborated concept storage structure and thus require more retrieval time?

Anomalous findings related to questions

The details of response timings recorded on the spreadsheet were visually examined for any anomalies. One of the unexplained results related to response times to question 15. The response times for this particular question appeared to be much longer than for other questions; something which had not been found in data from other research group studies.

It was decided to analyse further samples of students using the CSA instrument. A further two samples, 180 and 159 respectively, were taken from data files. Careful examination of this data was carried out so that any duplicate data from earlier samples were removed. The findings from these samples, however, indicated a similar trend.

It was decided to discuss the particular question with fire service officers about the concepts involved in the question. Discussions failed to point to anything that could have led to this consistent need for longer processing of the question. Further hypotheses about the longer response time, such as a group going out for a coffee-break, or individuals going out for a comfort break were discounted since the same phenomenon occurred across different course groups.

The cause of this phenomenon has not been identified but might have an explanation in the possible ‘semantic distance’ reasons mentioned above.

Summary

This chapter reports on a sub-study carried out within the research, namely to examine response time data and relationships with 'cognitive style' and 'learning style'. The gathering and processing of the data are described as are the two reasons for exploring the data; firstly to seek quantitative evidence that LSQ 'activists' are more 'impulsive' than other groups, and therefore may exhibit faster response times, and secondly to uncover reasons that might explain the much longer processing times linked to one particular question.

The findings related to the 'activist' 'impulsiveness' hypothesis does seem to have some, but not conclusive, evidence particularly in relation to 'activists' and 'verbaliser' focused questions; but there appears to be no clear relationship between 'activists' and other types of questions, e.g. 'imager' and the 'wholist' 'analytic' problems. There do not appear to be clear differences in processing speed between the other LSQ types.

The problem related to long response times to a particular question was not resolved or otherwise explained and hence would require some further research if results gathered in the future exhibited the same characteristics.

CHAPTER 8

Discussion and conclusions

Overview

This chapter will review the findings of the three main aspects of the research in order to draw together the main themes and compare the outcomes with the original objectives. One of the objectives of the research was to study the degree to which scores on the CSA and the LSQ related by conducting a correlational study. A second objective was to examine the descriptors (constructs) used in the CSA and LSQ manuals through a factor analytic study of the three instruments in the hope of casting more light on the process of interpreting the scores from these instruments. Thirdly, to provide some answers to the question, how far do these instruments provide information that can be useful in the design of courses that cater for students' learning style, cognitive style and preferred methods of being taught?

Discussion

The rationale of this research has been to examine some of the factors that can have some effect on the teaching learning process. Throughout this research it has been noticeable that there are many models and theories of learning, teaching and theories of cognitive functioning.

The plethora of models is an interesting phenomenon in itself since it gives credence to the view that one of the human behaviour responses to the world is to simplify information wherever possible into some kind of structure and classification and to encode stimuli in a verbally symbolic or visual model.

The visual ó diagram, or verbal ó metaphor, or mechanical ó analogue ó provide ways of encapsulating complex abstract ideas and relationships. Such constructions are a means of reducing cognitive complexity and are often capable of communicating what would otherwise take many words to describe. A familiar example of the mechanical analogue is that of the standard clock face. Its very familiarity caused few people to think about its elegance as a means of communicating the complex relationships of time. The digital display clock, popular during the last decade or two, has highlighted the fact that the additional information is conveyed by the traditional clockface, but is absent in the digital display. For example, questions such as ‘how much longer?’ ‘how much time is there left?’ are more easily estimated from a traditional analogue clock face than from a digital display.

In psychology, the development of theoretical models and structures attempt to communicate something more than mere words would do. In this research, the example of the ‘onion’ model is used as a metaphor by which it is easier to understand the interrelations of cognitive functioning.

If one was to study a ‘neuroanatomy’ text, it would soon be apparent that the brain just does not function in the way that the ‘onion’ model proposes. However, as a

metaphor, the ideas associated with the layers do suggest some of the attributes regarding the degree of accessibility as to how the brain functions. The idea that the outer layer is much more accessible than the inner core relates well to the idea that outward behaviour is much easier to observe than the neuronal activity deep inside the brain.

An alternative model, or framework, which comprises five levels, is summarized by Posner and Raichle (1997) and illustrated in the table below (Table 8:1)

Table 8:1 Framework for linking Cognitive and Neural Levels of analysis

Level	Example	Methods
Cognitive system	Language, attention, motor control	Verbal report
Mental operation	Next, rotate, zoom	Computer simulations
Performance domain (pathway activation)	Facilitate, inhibit	Cognitive studies, neural networks
Neural system	Parietal lobes	PET, event-related potentials, MRI, lesion analysis
Cell	Primary visual area	Cellular recording

These five levels describe a wider range of cognitive functioning, and provides a somewhat greater detailed view than the onion model by Curry.

The utility of the onion model in this current research is that it provides a simple structure into which the data gathered by each of the instruments, the CSA, the LSQ and the Preferences Questionnaire can be seen to relate. The three main layers in the model are described as follows: the innermost layer (or core) is responsible for cognitive aspects of personality, the intermediate, or middle layer is responsible for information processing and the outer layer, which is the area of perceptual inputs

and reactional outputs, is related to such things as the learning situation and instructional preference.

This metaphor, which attempts to describe what appears to happen in terms of brain functioning might, with the passage of time, appear to be as strange to future cognitive researchers as does present knowledge about our planet when compared to the believers of a flat earth. However, until a more sophisticated model is devised, let the existing ones communicate what they can.

In the current research the three assessment and survey instruments described earlier have been used to sample behaviour from each of these layers. These are: the CSA, which appears to sample the inner and middle layers. The constructs used in the CSA descriptors include aspects of both personality and learning strategies (Riding and Rayner 1998, p.83). The data described in the current research regarding processing speeds casts some light on the differential quantitative aspects of information processing, namely differences in processing speed between those who see things holistically as compared with those who see analytically and similarly those who encode the in a verbal or image form for processing.

The LSQ, on the other hand, primarily samples preferences for learning behaviours. To a lesser extent the descriptors in LSQ analysis have some links with secondary aspects of personality. Some of the research examined in earlier chapters link LSQ descriptors with secondary aspects of the core personality traits in the big three and the big five.

The Preferences Questionnaire used in the research was designed purely to sample the surface elements of individual preferences for the delivery of training. The LSQ and the Preferences Questionnaire would, in Curry's model, sample the outer layer of learning preferences; in fact these might be considered as perceptual process preferences since it could be argued that this level of functioning is at the interface between the individual person and the environment, i.e. the learning context.

The aim of this research design has been to take a broader look at the use of the two assessment instruments that sample cognitive and learning styles in order to examine possible relationships between them and also to see if there are links between cognitive and learning styles and how individuals prefer material to be delivered for learning.

The CSA has been used in a number of research studies (Riding and Rayner, 1998) much of which has focused on quantitative aspects; e.g. correlations between cognitive style and improvements in learning (Riding and Sadler-Smith, 1992) as well as other aspects of ability and personality. The use of the LSQ has generally been reported in qualitative research studies focusing on how individuals and groups of individuals learn (Mumford, 1993, 1994 and 1995).

One of the major difficulties regarding learning style and cognitive style research, and their links with personality, is that of the meanings of 'construct names' and how they are sampled by each instrument. This is a particular problem when the same labels are used in different instruments. Whilst it is possible to correlate findings with other instruments that use the same labels, it is not always possible to ensure

that there is a similarity of meaning concerning the qualitative aspects attached to a label.

There is a possible line of debate as to whether the constructs used in Kolb's model of 'experiential learning', which is a model of the learning process, are appropriate for use as a model of 'learning style' as used in the 'Learning Styles Inventory'.

There is also a similar case to be made about Honey and Mumford's use of this model as an assessment model for the 'Learning Styles Questionnaire', despite using different construct names.

The main question arises as to whether models of the learning process are considered as being in parallel with, or are a reflection of the processes involved in student learning; in much the same way that Ausubel discusses how theories of learning and of teaching are really independent of each other; though one can draw inferences from one to explain the other.

Whereas Ausubel identifies a range of cognitive skills and processes (intrapersonal and situational) that are used in learning different types of subject matter, the 'learning cycle' models of Kolb, and Honey and Mumford, describe fewer, but more generalised processes, all of which are used to a greater or lesser extent by learners.

The learning style of an individual, when described in terms of the learning cycle model, is shown as a profile of an individual's 'strengths' and 'weaknesses' in using each of the four main processes of the learning cycle. The theoretical 'rounded' learner presumably has equal strengths in each of the four dimensions. A low score in one or more of these dimensions is thus considered as a deficit that can be

remediated through training. It might also be necessary to consider the
-intrapersonal, -interpersonal and -situational aspects of the learning environment
and how they affect each of the four areas of the learning cycle model.

The complexities involved in describing how learning takes place depend on -what
has to be learned, -what is already known, and -how something can be learned. It
would appear that an individual needs to have a balanced profile to be a -rounded
learner; and anyone with a skewed profile would be a less efficient learner. This
notion would reflect the suggestions of Pask (1976), who considered that individuals
who are able to switch from mode to another when learning become more flexible
and efficient learners.

Instruments such as the LSQ and the CSA have been shown to indicate some
significant correlations with particular learning activities in controlled -laboratory
(classroom) situations. However, the range variables in normal classroom situations
would produce research results and conclusions which at the most should be
considered tentative.

The need to apply an element of caution in generalizing results of psychological
experiments such as these is also supported by Tennant (1997, p.136) who, whilst
agreeing with the principles of research methods in controlling for unwanted
variables, nevertheless points out that application of such findings in the 'real' world
is not subject to such controls.

Returning to the problem of constructs, it has not been possible in this research
study, due to lack of students and teaching colleagues' time, to undertake an

examination of the CSA scores with other instruments that have a more extensive background of research studies to support them; such as the MBTI and 16PF. Had this been possible, the data gained could then have provided some benchmarks about the CSA and LSQ, particularly in accounting for the personality aspects of style.

Instead it has only been possible to make some tenuous links through some other research into the correlation between the EPQ (Eysenck Personality Questionnaire) and the LSQ by Furnham *et al* (1997). This research identified a correlation between the LSQ *‘activist’* and the EPQ *‘psychotic – impulsive’* trait. Since in the current research it was found that the *‘wholist’* *analytic’* dimension of the CSA correlated negatively with the LSQ *‘activist’* dimension, it would be possible to consider that high *‘activist’* scores tend to be associated *‘wholists’* with low WA ratios. The number of *‘wholists’* in the sample was small and therefore the findings were not statistically significant.

CSA descriptors used in reporting *‘wholistic’* behaviour in the form of personality traits are stated to be *‘moderated’* by a degree of *‘verbaliser’* *imager’* interaction. For example a *‘wholist’* *verbaliser’* in response to difficulties is described in one of the descriptors as,

“When things get difficult and you are under pressure or stress you tend to become more outward and active. This can be a positive characteristic since this outward energy may help to resolve the difficulty.”

However, a *‘wholist’* *imager’* in response to difficulties is described as,

“You tend to become more inward when things are difficult. You withdraw into yourself.”

The qualitative differences in personal response behaviour described here appear to

be influenced by the degree of *verbaliser/imager* tendency; and yet correlations between this CSA dimension and the four LSQ types are all less than 0.03 (range $r=0.005$ to $r=0.031$).

The relative 'extraversion' aspect of 'activists' behaviour and the relative 'introversion' of 'reflectors' would also appear to suggest that there might be some subtle differences in the qualities of the constructs being measured by both these instruments.

The descriptors in the LSQ manual for *activists* appear to imply that they learn best when they are faced with novel activities, activities that set a challenge and involve excitement and drama. Other examples exist in the descriptors that suggest that the CSA dimensions and the LSQ types lie across each other (orthogonally) rather than have any direct relationships.

Apart from the low correlations between the CSA ratios and the LSQ scores in the current research, the apparent lack of published quantitative data, other than that of Furnham, *et al* (1997), makes further quantitative comparisons difficult. There appears to be a pragmatic utility in applying the four styles of the LSQ, since it is described in the many qualitative studies of training for developing managers. In this respect, the LSQ is perhaps more useful for descriptive purposes in the process of arousing individual awareness than as a research instrument.

The current research, however, seems to confirm other research findings concerning the number of factors present in the LSQ. For example, Allinson and Hayes (1990), report two main factors; one which is *action* focused, and the other *analysis*

focused. In the current research, however, the two factors identified appear to be *–reflector* and *–pragmatist* focused; or they might be labelled *–thinking* and *–doing*.

First impressions of the LSQ instrument would suggest that the *–activist* style would form the basis of the *–action* focused factor. However, from the current research findings the *–activist* style was highly negatively loaded on the 'thinking' (or reflector) factor ($r = -0.82$) and it had almost no correlation with the 'doing' (or pragmatist) factor ($r = 0.09$). On the *–thinking* factor, *–reflectors* loaded highly ($r = 0.84$) and *–theorists* slightly less so ($r = 0.71$); the *–theorists* also correlated almost equally with the *–doing* factor ($r = 0.62$).

This would seem to imply that individuals with a *–theorist* style would not only think about something but also do something. The descriptors in the LSQ manual suggest that *–theorists* learn best from situations that are logical, systematic, well organized and offer opportunities to reason rationally.

The general findings in this research tends to support a view that the two CSA factors (*–wholist* and *–analytic*) and the two basic LSQ factors (*–thinking* and *–doing*) are not immediately related and would thus lie orthogonally in an imaginary conceptual space.

A similar problem concerning the conceptualizing of construct statements arose during the research when gathering the data using the questionnaire designed to identify student preferences for course delivery. The dilemma that had to be faced had some practical implications.

It was important to design a form that was not too time consuming to complete and yet it also had to yield sufficient information for analysis. If the questionnaire had been lengthy and items more tightly defined and specific, there would have been a possibility that a fewer number of questionnaires would have been returned. In the event, the shorter questionnaire had a satisfactory return rate, over 80%.

However, one of the defects was that some of the items in the questionnaire could possibly be given a wider interpretation than was intended. For example, the item *‘Listening to the lecturer talking’* although if it is taken literally, it is specific, it could be and probably was interpreted as *‘listening to a lecture’*. In the interpretation of the term *‘lecture’*, various other meanings related to presentation could have been encapsulated within an individual’s response. Therefore, this wider interpretation might have influenced an increase or decrease in the degree of preference and helpfulness felt by the respondent. As many of the lectures given at the College are designated *‘interactive lecture’* it is possible that this wider interpretation was intended in some responses.

Another problem experienced, described briefly in chapter 6, was that in order to give the questionnaire a degree of priority over those being devised by fellow students for their own study projects, the questionnaires were used as an evaluation form about a particular session on their course. Due to the organization of the course, this meant that certain kinds of delivery were not included within the programme, and therefore some of the items on the questionnaire were marked N/A as they were not applicable. This inevitably meant that certain items on the questionnaire were left

blank and thus provided less data than for others.

Later cohorts of students received amended instructions requesting them to give their preferences regardless as to whether particular delivery methods were used on the course. Students were asked to remember their previous experiences on earlier courses to help them work out their preferences.

Once sufficient data had been collected, i.e. from in excess of six student cohorts (>140 students), the analysis was carried out in two ways, firstly the raw data was analysed visually through tabulating the data in spreadsheets, secondly, this raw data was exported from the spreadsheets and imported into the SPSS package for more complex analysis such as -analysis of varianceø and -factor analysisø. Analysis of the data from the earlier cohorts did not reveal any noticeable results in terms of associations or any visible patterns.

As data accumulated, this trend did not change appreciably. The introduction of some data from another source, namely business studies students from a Higher Education institution enabled some comparisons to be made. Analysis of both sets of data revealed that the profile of Fire Service College students was atypical by comparison. The spread of ratio scores for the HE students was fairly equally distributed across the nine CSA categories. A Log-Linear (non-parametric chi-square) analysis of the two sets of data identified a highly significant ($p < 0.001$) difference in scores. The relative homogeneity of the FSC student sample, i.e. a predominance of -analyticsø, therefore made comparisons between learning types and cognitive style somewhat difficult since there was insufficient differentiation

within this sample group with regard to CSA scores on the 'wholisticóanalyticø dimension.

The range of ratio scores on the 'verbaliseróimagerø dimension for both sample groups were more evenly distributed across the CSA categories, although there were slightly more subjects in the 'imagerø category of the dimension for the HE student sample as compared with the FSC group, which showed a more even distribution.

In view of the 'moderatingø influence of the 'verbaliseróimager' dimension on the 'wholisticóanalyticø axis, the descriptors suggesting that aspects of 'introversionø increase in relation to increases in 'imagerø scores. It is therefore possible to infer that the HE students exhibit a slightly more introverted style of behaviour as compared with the FSC students.

Quantifying and comparing more accurately the degree of 'introversionø between the two sample groups has not been possible since no independent measures of this trait were available. However, some historical data, which was gathered from Divisional Command Students at the FSC over a period of ten years prior to the current research was made available. This data, using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), indicated that DCC groups sampled tended to have a profile of scores slightly weighted on the side of 'introversionø (Introversion groups = 55.5%, Extraversion groups = 44.5%). This distribution closely parallels the DCC sample distribution across the 'verbaliseróimagerø categories in the following percentages: 'verbalisersø = 30.7%; 'bimodalsø = 33.1% and 'imagersø = 36.2%. This compares with the HE students: 'verbalisersø = 29.4%; 'bimodalsø = 30.6% and 'imagersø = 40.0%.

Before looking at the relationships between cognitive style, learning style and preferences for methods of course delivery, it is perhaps useful to look at the implications of the factor analysis carried out on the questionnaire data.

Early in the research some exploratory work using personal construct elicitation techniques identified some of the perceptions students had about the methods of course delivery at the FSC. Though a full statistical analysis of this small scale study was not pursued, some of the concepts and constructs produced by the students were used in the construction of the Preferences Questionnaire.

After the questionnaire data was gathered in and entered into a spreadsheet, some of the original constructs from the pilot study were used to form labels for a grouping of the delivery methods listed on the questionnaire. For example ‘passive’, ‘active’, ‘hands-on’ and ‘interactive’ formed the basis for reducing the 14 items into a more manageable six. As this was an intuitive classification used in the middle stages of the research, this classification was discarded when the factor analysis identified more statistically justifiable domains. The analysis of the ‘preference’ data was then carried out using the five factors identified.

The five factors were labelled, ‘highly practical and interactive’, ‘abstract, academic and non-interactive’, ‘lecturer directed interactive’ and ‘use of video & moving images’. These proved to be similar categories to those used ‘intuitively’ earlier on. From this analysis it was possible to identify broadly what students preferred and what they found helpful in the way of course delivery methods.

The questionnaire itself was sampling students’ views on the delivery systems as

they existed at the Fire Service College at the time of the research. It would have been possible to include other methods of delivery, even though they were not used at the College. These might have elicited preferences for methods that students may have experienced at other institutions or establishments.

It could be argued that this wider representation of delivery systems could be useful to any organization wishing to review options for designing future courses. This could well provide a topic for further research.

One of the original aims of the course was to inform College teaching staff about optimising the design of courses for students at the College by using the information about cognitive and learning style of the students. In view of the complexities of learning environments and the interaction of individuals with these variables, there is a considerable problem in defining the criterion of 'optimal' in relation to course design and how to evaluate it.

Looking at it from a student's perspective, the data gathered has identified their preferences for various delivery methods and also how helpful they are to their learning. However, looking at the situation from the College authority's perspective, the term 'optimal' would most probably be equated with 'lowest cost option'. Somewhere in between these two lies the need to consider 'efficiency' and 'effectiveness' which might imply using some less preferred methods of delivery to reduce costs but at the same time encouraging students to become more effective learners by encouraging them to engage in new strategies of learning.

Efficiency is presumably the ratio of 'learning effectiveness' divided by 'cost'. A

cheap solution may not be effective and therefore not efficient, conversely a more expensive solution may be far more effective and thus more efficient.

Suffice it to say, the data gathered in this research has given some useful pointers in terms of the general direction future course development should pursue. These findings, summarized below in the conclusions, have recently been substantiated by information gathered from course evaluation sheets over the past year that have identified some of the weak areas of course delivery. Some further suggestions were given about alternative course delivery methods, which coincidentally is in agreement with the delivery preferences indicated by this current research study.

Conclusions

The overall aim of the research was use data gathered about students' preferences for methods of course delivery and then to use the data to assist in designing courses using an optimum balance of delivery methods. Also, the research aimed to examine the utility of the Cognitive Styles Analysis instrument, the Learning Styles Questionnaire as methods for identifying students' preferred learning style.

The use of the concept 'optimum' is linked with other concepts such as 'efficiency' and 'effectiveness'. In the field of training there are no simple answers to questions about efficiency. Whether it might be possible to cut the costs of delivering courses by increasing the time spent using preferred delivery methods remains in some doubt without further research.

Findings in this research indicate that the preferred methods tend to be the more

labour intensive ones, i.e. those requiring more tutor student interaction, more peer interaction, and more practical work. Other findings suggest that initially it may not be possible to engage in using distance-learning as a method to reduce costs, particularly in view of the low preference ratings given to areas of academic and self-study materials; and also the relatively expensive development costs.

The key will be to maintain or raise the effectiveness levels of students' learning through preparatory programmes in study techniques using the new technologies whilst at the same time either maintaining or reducing the costs elsewhere. The following quotation proposes a note of caution but supports the findings of students preferences for interactive learning,

“Education is not reducible to the downloading of information, much less to the passive solitary activity of staring at a screen. Education is an intersubjective and social process, involving hands-on activity, spontaneity, and the communal experience of sharing in the learning enterprise.” (Noble, 1998)

The findings using the CSA and LSQ scores appear to be inconclusive in providing direction towards optimising the delivery of courses. This is due to the number of factors that interplay within the teaching and learning process is large.

The highly skewed distribution of FSC students on the CSA ‘wholist’/‘analytic’ dimension makes predictions about the links between optimal course delivery methods and cognitive style inconclusive. Whereas one could be confident in stating that the most popular delivery methods are suited to analytics, the absence of a similar number of ‘wholists’ makes it difficult to state whether these same methods would, or would not, suit ‘wholists’.

Where research has found links between both the CSA and the LSQ and favourable learning situations, the focus has tended to be on one or two controlled factors.

The overall findings indicate that there is little correlation between the CSA scores and the LSQ scores, the highest value reached being between the Wholist/Analytic dimension and Pragmatists (0.089). This would seem to indicate that the two instruments are assessing two qualitatively different areas of cognitive functioning. The LSQ assesses attitudes and situations of people and how they appear to learn best, whilst the CSA examines the type of processing that individuals undertake when receiving material to learn.

From the data gathered during the current research, neither instrument appears to help in identifying how individuals like to be taught since their preferences, indicated by the preference questionnaire, do not show a consistent pattern of correlation with either the CSA or LSQ.

What the research has shown substantiates previous findings about the CSA having two independent construct factors as very low correlation values were found between the 'wholist/analytic' and 'verbaliser/imager' dimensions (0.43).

The factor analysis findings related to the LSQ data suggests that there are two main factors that can probably be best described as 'the thinkers' and 'the doers'. This would be broadly in line with earlier research that identified factors 'action' and 'analysis' except that in this current research 'the doers' relate to 'pragmatism' rather than the 'action' factor, which in previous research related to 'activists'.

The 'activist' dimension appears to be at the opposite pole of a construct dimension based on 'reflection' since it correlates highly negatively with this factor. A possible secondary trait that could possibly be associated at the opposite end of the bi-polar construct is 'impulsivity'. Since, according to previous research, the 'activist' style correlated with 'impulsivity' on the EPQ instrument, the current research would appear to confirm this finding.

These latter points will help to clarify some of the construct definitions related to cognitive and learning styles.

The CSA data gathered in this research shows a distinctive profile for this particular vocational group. The predominance of 'analytic' tendencies found in the sample may be due to the type of people selected for the Fire Service or it may be that the nature of the work has some moulding effect on those within the service and thus enhances the analytic thinking processes. A wider survey and further research would be required to confirm these hypotheses.

The general absence of relationship, or statistically significant correlations, between the Cognitive Styles Analysis instrument and other instruments used would seem to confirm the view that 'style', as measured by the CSA, exists as a separate entity. This will need to be explored further to address the questions indicated below.

Three major questions arise from the current research and would form the basis for future research projects.

1. On a specific note, is the sample of Divisional Command Course students in the current research typical of Fire Service personnel as a whole?
2. How far do the Cognitive Styles Analysis dimensions correlate with individual constructs, or factors, measured by other instruments measuring personality and ability?
3. Does 'style' form a bridge between core personality traits and outer manifestations of behaviour as reflected in preferences, strategies or abilities?

In answer to the first question, further data from a larger survey would need to be gathered. As far as possible, the data would need to be gathered from a wider range of personnel at all levels in the Fire Service to include firefighters, junior officers, senior officers and officers who work in control rooms.

In answer to the second, a large scale correlational data gathering exercise would need to be carried out using the CSA and a variety of other instruments that assess the 'big five' personality factors. The sample size would need to be large enough to allow for correlations with individual secondary factors to be carried out. Such a study would help to identify the links, if any, with the core traits and their subsidiary aspects.

The third question would need to address the reasons why the CSA has low correlations with both personality and preference factors. Research would need to explore what particular behavioural manifestations are uniquely linked to style but cannot be accounted for by other factors. In other words, firstly, find out what

cognitive style isn't, and then to define style through eliminating constructs which can be accounted for by other aspects such as personality and ability.

If style exists as a separate entity, then from such an examination of the gaps between personality and ability, or indeed any interactions between them, could be a basis for describing style operationally.

There are other instruments that purport to measure cognitive style. Each one assesses the style construct in a particular way. A correlational study between the CSA and other instruments could help to identify what factors are common and what are distinctive to the various instruments used.

Though it is possible to think wholistically or analytically for some of the time, is the degree to which individuals think in either mode a matter of style or is it related to context and experience. Are we restricted to thinking in general terms because we lack the knowledge, expertise or experience to perceive the detail?

The same uncertainty can be linked to the 'verbaliseróimager' dimension. The problem of encoding may not be related to style but to the material that requires encoding. Abstract concepts can be coded as ephemeral 'mental models' and discarded when no longer required in the process of thinking. Are these mental models then subsumed into the cognitive structure ready for use on a future occasion?

Whilst the 'wholistóanalytic', 'verbaliseróimager' model of cognitive style provides the most coherent model of cognitive style to date, there is a need to explore some

further areas such as the process of encoding concepts. In particular how do the blind encode images and would they tend to be 'verbalisers'?

Research into the cognitive style profiles of vocational groups has so far (Riding and Rayner, 1998) not identified any particular groups that are predominantly 'wholist' or 'intermediate verbaliser'. Further surveys may identify what kinds of groups they are; and are they 'doers' or 'facilitators' as predicted in the models of team roles?

Cognitive style research is still a relatively new area of exploration. The style jungle is still strewn with the debris of studies that have lead off into remote parts. A clearer view is ahead but there is still a mistiness obscuring the destination.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Teaching & Learning Styles Survey	Page 1
Preferences Questionnaire on Course Delivery Methods	Page 2

Appendix 2

DCCCSAC2.XLS

Spreadsheet data – Preferences by VI dimension	4 Pages
Spreadsheet data – Preferences by WA dimension	6 Pages
Spreadsheet data – Preferences by CSA Scores	9 Pages

Appendix 3

CSASAMPT.XLS

Spreadsheet data – VI-data Response Times	6 Pages
Spreadsheet data – WA-data Response Times	6 Pages

Appendix 4

CSA Distribution – CSA Data for DCC Students
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THE FIRE SERVICE COLLEGE
MORETON-IN-MARSH ENGLAND

Teaching & Learning Styles Survey

About yourself

Name:

Date of birth:

Rank:

Student number:

Course:

Which statutory examinations have
you passed? (please ✓ in the box(es))

- a) Leading Firefighter ☐
b) Sub Officer ☐
c) Station Officer ☐

Other qualifications:

- CSE ☐ GCE/GCSE(O level) ☐
HNC/Certificate ☐ HND/Diploma ☐
GCE (A level) ☐

Degree:

Other professional qualifications:

Professional memberships:

Notes:

Our teaching staff at the College are constantly looking at ways in which they can improve the delivery of our courses. This questionnaire is part of a data gathering exercise to discover student preferences when learning new information and skills.

We should like to ask you to spend a little time reflecting on a course session and to complete the information on the reverse side of this sheet showing what your preferences are and how much the methods used helped you.

The information will be treated in confidence; (results will be available to participants on request). Your name and student reference number will only be used to help us match up other data that you will be asked to give during the course.

*Please return this questionnaire to the tutor who issued it for this session, or by internal post to:
Mr. E.L. Wilson - Educational Development Tutor - Room L128*

Preferences Questionnaire on Course Delivery Methods

Please give your ratings for *each* of the delivery methods listed (whether used on your present course or not)

Of the course you are studying, how much did you know already?

Almost none of it	A little of it	About 50/50	A moderate amount	The majority of it

What are your preferences for each type of presentation method?

Tick ✓ boxes showing your preferences.

	Preferences						How much do these help you?		
	Strongly dislike	Dislike	No particular preference	Moderate preference	Strong preference		Very little help	Quite helpful	Very helpful
Listening to the lecturer talking.						1			
Looking at pictures/diagrams illustrating the concepts and principles to be learned.						2			
Watching 35mm slides, whilst listening to a commentary.						3			
Watching Video or film						4			
Demonstration using equipment/floorplans etc.						5			
Reading through course notes/books						6			
Writing notes & exercises about the topic						7			
Discussion with tutor						8			
Discussion with colleagues						9			
Working on simulated exercises/case studies						10			
Rôle play exercises						11			
De-briefing practical exercises using video						12			
Library study and researching information						13			
Using learning materials for study purposes						14			

Any general comment about the course delivery.

Page 1

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	AA	AB	AC	AD	AE	AF	AG	AH	AI	AJ	AK	AL	AM	AN	AO	AP	AQ	AR	AS				
3	No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist				1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5				
69	66	1.76	0.98	2	08	14	12	16		2		4	3	4	2								4	2	3	2	5	3	4	3	4	2								4.00	3.33	4.00	4.50					
70	67	2.30	0.98	2	08	17	13	18		0																																						
71	68	2.02	0.98	2	11	13	07	12		0																																						
72	69	1.19	0.98	5	04	14	12	12		3		4	3	4	3			4	3				4	2	3	2	4	3	5	3	5	3							5.00	3.50	4.00	4.00	4.00					
73	70	4.02	0.99	2	06	18	16	14		0																																						
74	71	2.02	0.99	2	05	13	10	09		0																																						
75	72	1.08	0.99	2	08	13	17	15		3		3	2					4	2					4	3	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	2			4	3				4.33	4.00	4.00	3.50	4.00			
76	73	0.90	0.99	8	12	11	13	17		0																																						
77	74	1.42	1.00	2	10	14	09	15		3		4	2	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	2	1	4	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	4	3	5	3	4	2	3	2	4.60	3.00	4.33	4.50	5.00				
78	75	1.48	1.00	2	09	15	11	12		0																																						
79	76	1.87	1.00	2	07	15	11	15		4		4	3	4	3								4	2	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	3	1			3	2	3	2	3.67	3.67	3.50	4.50				
80	77	1.86	1.00	2	00	00	00	00		5		3	2	3	2			3	2								3	2	4	3										4.00			3.00	3.00	3.00			
81	78	1.09	1.00	5	12	15	12	14		0																																						
82	79	2.52	1.01	2	12	13	15	18		5		5	3	3	2			5	3					3	2	3	2	5	3	5	3											5.00	3.00	3.00	5.00	5.00		
83	80	2.41	1.01	2	00	00	00	00		4		3	2	3	2								3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2						3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00			
84	81	1.80	1.01	2	10	09	14	11		4		4	2	3	2	2	1	3	2	4	2	3	2	2	1	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	3	2			3.80	2.67	2.67	4.00	3.00		
85	82	1.93	1.01	2	05	09	14	14		4		4	3	4	2			5	3					5	2	5	3	5	3	4	2										4.50	5.00	4.00	4.50	5.00			
86	83	1.26	1.01	5	07	19	13	19		3		4	2	4	2	3	1	3	1	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3			4.80	4.67	4.00	4.50	3.00		
87	84	2.11	1.02	2	06	17	12	16		4		4	2	5	3			5	3				5	3			5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3			5	3	5	3			5.00	5.00	5.00	4.50	5.00	
88	85	1.59	1.02	2	06	16	17	19		0																																						
89	86	1.54	1.02	2	00	00	00	00		0																																						
90	87	2.00	1.02	2	05	17	12	11		2		5	3					5	3				4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	3	2					5	3	4.33	4.67		5.00	5.00			
91	88	1.49	1.02	2	08	10	10	15		4		4	0	4	0	3	0	3	0				3	0	2	0	4	0	4	0	3	0	4	0	4							3.75	2.50	3.50	4.00	3.00		
92	89	1.41	1.02	2	06	17	14	13		3		3	2	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	3	2	1	2	1	4	3	5	3	5	0	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	4.40	2.33	3.67	3.50	5.00		
93	90	0.81	1.02	8	15	06	10	14		4		3	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	3	2	2	1	3	2	2	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	4	3	3	2	3	2			3.80	2.67	4.00	3.50	5.00	
94	91	1.46	1.03	2	06	17	13	12		3		3	2	3	2	3	2	5	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	2			3.20	2.33	2.67	3.50	5.00	
95	92	2.44	1.03	2	05	14	12	14		0																																						
96	93	1.30	1.03	5	00	00	00	00		4		2	1	3	2	3	1	4	2				4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	4	2			4.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	
97	94	0.89	1.03	8	11	16	12	09		4		4	3	4	2			5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	4	2			4.20	4.00	4.00	4.50	5.00
98	95	1.74	1.04	2	03	16	15	15		3		4	2	3	2			4	2								4	2	5	3	4	3											4.50		3.00	4.00	4.00	
99	96	1.41	1.04	2	07	11	13	11		2		5	3														5	3	4	3												4.00			5.00			
100	97	1.52	1.04	2	10	12	11	17		4		3	2	3	1			4	3				4	2	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	2	3	2	3	2			4.50	4.00	3.00	3.50	4.00	
101	98	1.05	1.04	5	00	00	00	00		0																																						
102	99	1.02	1.04	8	13	15	12	12		0																																						
103	100	1.70	1.05	2	16	10	10	13		0																																						
104	101	1.48	1.05	2	04	16	14	16		0																																						
105	102	1.42	1.05	2	05	15	16	11		0																																						
106	103	1.75	1.06	2	10	13	12	12		3		4	3					5	3				3	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	2	1	3	2			3.75	3.00	2.00	3.50	5.00	
107	104	2.07	1.06	2	05	17	15	11		5																	4	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	4	1	4	2	5	2			2.50	5.00	4.00	4.00		
108	105	1.88	1.06	2	08	16	17	19		0																																						
109	106	1.12	1.06	5	07	14	13	12		3		3	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	3	3	2	3	2			4.40	3.33	3.00	3.50	4.00
110	107	1.28	1.06	5	04	15	10	07		0																																						
111	108	2.01	1.07	2	07	16	09	12		0																																						
112	109	1.83	1.07	2	10	18	13	16		4		4	3	2	1	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	3	2	2	1	3	2			3.60	3.67	2.33	4.00	3.00		
113	110	2.56	1.07	2	00	00	00	00		0																																						
114	111	1.49	1.07	2	08	12	14	17		4		3	2	4	2	4	2	4					2	1	5	3	5	3	5</																			

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	AA	AB	AC	AD	AE	AF	AG	AH	AI	AJ	AK	AL	AM	AN	AO	AP	AQ	AR	AS		
3	No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist					1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5		
137	134	0.76	1.12	9	06	17	14	16			0																																				
138	135	2.81	1.14	3	8	8	10	11			4		3	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	5	2	2	1	3	1	4	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	4	3	3	2	4.80	2.67	3.67	3.50	4.00		
139	136	2.75	1.14	3	13	11	10	11			2		4	2	4	3	1	1	3	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	5	3	4	3	4	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	3	2	3.80	2.67	3.00	4.50	3.00		
140	137	1.65	1.14	3	00	00	00	00			2		4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	0	0	2	1	2	1	4	2																			
141	138	2.64	1.14	3	08	19	16	15			4		3	2	4	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	2	1	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	2	1	3.80	2.00	3.00	3.00	4.00		
142	139	2.23	1.14	3	11	18	19	18			2		4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	4	3	4.00	3.33	3.67	4.00	4.00		
143	140	1.16	1.14	6	14	10	05	15			3		4	3	4	2			5	3					4	3	4	0	5	3																	
144	141	1.09	1.14	6	12	12	17	13			0																																				
145	142	0.84	1.14	9	00	00	00	00			0																																				
146	143	1.43	1.15	3	00	20	18	19			0																																				
147	144	1.63	1.16	3	14	06	09	14			4		5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	3	4.80	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00		
148	145	2.61	1.16	3	02	19	17	17			0																																				
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150	147	1.03	1.16	6	00	00	00	00			0																																				
151	148	2.52	1.17	3	08	15	14	11			0																																				
152	149	1.73	1.17	3	00	00	00	00			3																																				
153	150	1.67	1.17	3	08	16	13	17			2		5	3	4	3	0	2	4	3	0	2	0	1	4	1	5	2	3	2	0	2	3	2	0	2	0	2	0	2	4.00	4.50	3.00	4.00	4.00		
154	151	2.26	1.17	3	11	17	14	14			4		3	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	2	1	2	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3													
155	152	1.25	1.18	6	04	15	18	11			0																																				
156	153	1.27	1.18	6	00	00	00	00			0																																				
157	154	1.53	1.19	2	06	16	15	10			2		3	2	4	2	4	3	5	3	3	2	2	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	2	5	3	0	1	4	2	3	1	3.20	3.00	4.00	3.00	5.00		
158	155	1.62	1.19	3	11	08	10	17			4		2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	2	2	3	2	3.80	2.67	2.67	3.00	3.00		
159	156	1.46	1.20	3	06	13	14	12			0																																				
160	157	2.77	1.2	3	06	13	11	15			3		4	3	0																																
161	158	2.23	1.20	3	07	17	12	14			3		4	2	5	3	3	1	3	2	3	2	4	3	2	1	4	2	5	3	4	2	5	3	2	1	5	3	4	2	3.80	3.33	4.33	4.00	3.00		
162	159	1.59	1.21	3	08	17	16	18			2		5	3	3	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	2	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	3	4	2	4.20	3.33	3.67	4.50	4.00
163	160	2.76	1.21	3	08	10	13	12			0																																				
164	161	1.41	1.22	2	16	12	13	19			0																																				
165	162	3.4	1.22	3	00	00	00	00			0																																				
166	163	1.75	1.22	3	15	06	09	15			0																																				
167	164	1.82	1.22	3	09	15	11	16			3		4	2																																	
168	165	1.65	1.22	3	02	16	15	15			4		3	2																																	
169	166	1.51	1.22	3	07	17	15	16			2		2	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	3	2	5	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	3	3	5.00	3.67	3.67	3.50	4.00		
170	167	1.55	1.23	3	09	13	13	08			0																																				
171	168	1.68	1.23	3	06	12	13	10			4		3	2	4	3	2	2	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	2	2	3	2	4.20	3.67	2.67	3.50	4.00		
172	169	3.07	1.24	3	10	17	15	15			3		4	3	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	2	2	2	2	4	3	2	1	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3.20	2.00	3.67	4.00	4.00			
173	170	1.13	1.24	6	12	07	03	05			3		3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	3.00	3.00	2.67	3.50	2.00		
174	171	1.59	1.24	3	08	10	16	15			3		1	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	4	2	4	3	3	2	3	2	3.80	2.67	3.00	2.50	4.00		
175	172	1.38	1.25	3	00	00	00	00			5		5	3																																	
176	173	1.62	1.25	3	03	20	17	15			3		4	2	3	1																															
177	174	1.12	1.27	6	11	14	11	11																																							
178	175	2.59	1.27	3	10	12	14	14			4		4	2	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	5	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	5	3	4	2	3.80	3.33	4.67	4.00	4.00		
179	176	1.33	1.28	6	10	16	12	11			0																																				
180	177	1.50	1.30	2	02	15	14	14			0																																				
181	178	1.05	1.31	6	03	15	12	09			3		4	3																																	
182	179	1.33	1.31	6	00	00	00																																								

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No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist						1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5				
67	1.34	0.97	4	06	20	18	14																																										
68	1.34	0.90	4	07	14	18	16						5	3	5	3						4	2	4	2			5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3			4	2	4.60	4.00	5.00	5.00				
69	1.35	0.96	1	10	12	14	16																																										
70	1.35	1.08	5	00	00	00	00																																										
71	1.35	1.07	5	05	15	19	14						5	3	4	2			5	3				4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	2							4.50	4.00	4.00	5.00	5.00					
72	1.38	0.84	1	09	14	13	16						5	2	3	1	2	1	3	2	4	2	3	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	4.60	3.67	3.00	3.50	3.00		
73	1.38	1.25	3	00	00	00	00						5	5	3				5	3							5	3	5	3														5.00			5.00	5.00	
74	1.39	1.11	3	01	16	16	13																																										
75	1.41	1.22	2	16	12	13	19																																										
76	1.41	1.04	2	07	11	13	11						5	3														5	3	4	3																		
77	1.41	1.02	2	06	17	14	13						3	2	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	3	2	1	2	1	4	3	5	3	5	0	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	4.40	2.33	3.67	3.50	5.00				
78	1.42	1.00	2	10	14	09	15						3	4	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	2	1	4	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	4	3	5	3	4	2	3	2	4.60	3.00	4.33	4.50	5.00				
79	1.42	1.05	2	05	15	16	11						0																																				
80	1.42	1.39	3	10	11	11	18						0																																				
81	1.43	1.15	3	00	20	18	19						0																																				
82	1.46	0.98	1										0																																				
83	1.46	1.03	2	06	17	13	12						3	2	3	2	3	2	5	2	4	2	2	2	2	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	3.20	2.33	2.67	3.50	5.00				
84	1.46	1.20	3	06	13	14	12						0																																				
85	1.46	1.11	3	06	14	13	08						0																																				
86	1.48	1.00	2	09	15	11	12						0																																				
87	1.48	1.05	2	04	16	14	16						0																																				
88	1.49	1.07	2	08	12	14	17						4	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	0			2	1	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	0	2	5	3	5.00	4.00	2.67	4.00	4.00			
89	1.49	1.02	2	08	10	10	15						4	4	0	4	0	3	0	3	0		3	0	2	0	4	0	4	0	3	0	4	0	4	0													
90	1.50	1.30	2	02	15	14	14						0																																				
91	1.51	1.22	3	07	17	15	16						2	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	3	2	5	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	3	3	5.00	3.67	3.67	3.50	4.00				
92	1.52	0.81	1	09	12	13	14						0																																				
93	1.52	1.04	2	10	12	11	17						4	3	2	3	1			4	3			4	2	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	2	3	2	3	2	4.50	4.00	3.00	3.50	4.00			
94	1.53	1.19	2	06	16	15	10						2	3	2	4	2	4	3	5	3	3	2	2	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	2	5	3	0	1	4	2	3	1	3.20	3.00	4.00	3.00	5.00			
95	1.54	1.02	2	00	00	00	00						0																																				
96	1.55	1.23	3	09	13	13	08						0																																				
97	1.56	0.83	1	09	11	07	07						0																																				
98	1.58	0.95	1	00	00	00	00						0																																				
99	1.59	0.93	1	06	17	14	11						4	5	3	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	2	1	2	1	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	3	2	1	2	1	4.40	2.00	2.67	5.00	4.00			
100	1.59	1.02	2	06	16	17	19						0																																				
101	1.59	1.21	3	08	17	16	18						2	5	3	3	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	2	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	3	4	2	4.20	3.33	3.67	4.50	4.00			
102	1.59	1.24	3	08	10	16	15						3	1	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	4	2	4	3	3	2	3	2	3.80	2.67	3.00	2.50	4.00			
103	1.62	1.19	3	11	08	10	17						4	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	2	2	3	2	3.80	2.67	2.67	3.00	3.00				
104	1.62	1.25	3	03	20	17	15						3	4	2	3	1		5	3	2	1	2	1	3	0	5	3	5	3	4	2	4	0	2	1	4	2	4	2	3.40	3.00	3.50	4.50	5.00				
105	1.63	1.08	2	12	07	08	17						2	3	1	1	1	3	1	3	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	2	4	2	3	1	4	2	3	2	2	1	3.60	1.33	2.33	2.00	3.00				
106	1.63	1.16	3	14	06	09	14						4	5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	3	4.80	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00					
107	1.63	1.52	3	10	20	17	13						4	4	3	4	2	5	2	5	3	3	3	4	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	3	3	2	5	3	4.40	4.67	4.00	4.50	5.00				
108	1.63	0.81	1	03	20	19	18																																										
109	1.64	0.86	1	06	14	17	13						1	3	2	3	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	3	2	4	2	3	2	2	1	4	2	4	2	3	2	3.40	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00			
110	1.65	1.14	3	00	00	00	00						2	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2			2	1	2	1	4	2																				
111	1.65	1.22	3	02	16	15	15						4	3	2				4	2																													
112	1.66	1.08	2	00	00	00	00						0																																				
113	1.67	1.17	3	08	16	13	17						2	5	3</																																		

No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist					1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	
135	1.88	1.06	2	08	16	17	19			0																																			
136	1.89	0.97	1	09	13	12	11		2			4	3	4	3	3	2	4	3	3	2	2	1	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	2	4	3	3	2	3	2	3.80	2.67	3.33	4.00	4.00	
137	1.93	0.83	1	12	14	10	15		0																																				
138	1.93	1.01	2	05	09	14	14		4			4	3	4	2			5	3					5	2	5	3	5	3	4	2									4.50	5.00	4.00	4.50	5.00	
139	1.95	0.98	1	11	14	09	13		4			5	3	5	3	3	2	5	3	3	2	3	2	4	3	5	3	4	3	4	2	3	2	4	3	4	2	5	3	3.60	4.00	4.00	5.00	5.00	
140	1.98	0.95	1	09	09	13	18		4			5	3	3	1	3	1	4	2	2	1	3	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	3	1	3	1	3.80	3.33	3.00	5.00	4.00	
141	2.00	1.02	2	05	17	12	11		2			5	3					5	3			4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	3	2			5	3	4.33	4.67		5.00	5.00			
142	2.01	1.07	2	07	16	09	12		0																																				
143	2.02	0.99	2	05	13	10	09		0																																				
144	2.02	0.98	2	11	13	07	12		0																																				
145	2.04	1.10	3	08	16	12	08		3			4	3	4	2			5	3			4	2			5	3	5	3	4	2			4	3		4	2	4.33	4.00	4.00	4.50	5.00		
146	2.05	0.84	1	08	17	11	12		0																																				
147	2.07	0.85	1	07	16	12	10		0																																				
148	2.07	1.06	2	05	17	15	11		5																	4	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	4	1	4	2	5	2	2.50	5.00	4.00	4.00		
149	2.09	0.98	1	13	05	08	15		0																																				
150	2.11	1.02	2	06	17	12	16		4			4	2	5	3			5	3			5	3			5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3			5	3	5	3	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.50	5.00	
151	2.13	0.87	1	06	14	15	10		0																																				
152	2.14	1.12	3	09	10	16	16		3			4	2	4	2	3	1	4	2	5	3	3	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	4.80	3.67	3.67	4.00	4.00	
153	2.23	1.14	3	11	18	19	18		2			4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	4	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	2	4	3	4.00	3.33	3.67	4.00	4.00	
154	2.23	1.20	3	07	17	12	14		3			4	2	5	3	3	1	3	2	3	2	4	3	2	1	4	2	5	3	4	2	5	3	2	1	5	3	4	2	3.80	3.33	4.33	4.00	3.00	
155	2.26	0.95	1	05	14	09	08		3			5	3	4	2	3	2	5	3	3	1	2	1	3	1	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	3	3	1	3	2	3	2	3.80	2.67	3.33	5.00	5.00	
156	2.26	1.17	3	11	17	14	14		4			3	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	2	1	2	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3			2	3	2	2	4.00	2.00	3.00	3.50	4.00	
157	2.30	0.98	2	08	17	13	18		0																																				
158	2.33	0.97	1	05	04	09	15		0																																				
159	2.36	1.08	2	08	17	17	14		2			5	3	5	3	3	2	3	2	5	3	3	2	3	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	3	2	5.00	3.00	4.00	5.00	3.00	
160	2.38	0.9	1	08	13	11	15																																						
161	2.40	0.90	1	05	19	15	14		0																																				
162	2.41	1.01	2	00	00	00	00		4			3	2	3	2								3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2			3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00			
163	2.44	1.03	2	05	14	12	14		0																																				
164	2.52	1.01	2	12	13	15	18		5			5	3	3	2			5	3			3	2	3	2	5	3	5	3											5.00	3.00	3.00	5.00	5.00	
165	2.52	1.17	3	08	15	14	11		0																																				
166	2.56	1.11	3	07	13	8	8		4			1	1	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	2	1	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	3	2	4.80	3.00	3.33	2.50	3.00	
167	2.56	1.07	2	00	00	00	00		0																																				
168	2.56	1.16	3	03	19	15	09		4			4	3	4	2	2	2	3	2	3	1	2	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	2	3	2	4	2	3	2	3.80	3.00	3.33	4.00	3.00	
169	2.59	1.27	3	10	12	14	14		4			4	2	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	5	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	5	3	4	2	3.80	3.33	4.67	4.00	4.00	
170	2.61	1.16	3	02	19	17	17		0																																				
171	2.64	1.14	3	08	19	16	15		4			3	2	4	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	2	1	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	2	1	3.80	2.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	
172	2.69	0.95	1	05	16	10	14		3			5	3	3	1	2	1	4	2				3	2	3	2	4	2	5	3	4	2					3	2	3	2	4.50	3.00	2.67	4.50	4.00
173	2.75	1.14	3	13	11	10	11		2			4	2	4	3	1	1	3	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	5	3	4	3	4	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	3	2	3.80	2.67	3.00	4.50	3.00	
174	2.76	1.21	3	08	10	13	12		0																																				
175	2.77	1.2	3	06	13	11	15		3			4	3	3	0			4	3				3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3										4.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	
176	2.81	1.14	3	8	8	10	11		4			3	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	5	2	2	1	3	1	4	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	4	3	3	2	4.80	2.67	3.67	3.50	4.00	
177	2.83	1.12	3	09	16	16	16		3			4	2	5	3	3	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	3.60	3.00	3.67	4.00	4.00	
178	3.07	1.24	3	10	17	15	15		3			4	3	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	4	3	2	1	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	3.20	2.00	3.67	4.00	4.00		
179	3.24	1.08	2	06	13	11	16																																						
180	3.4	1.22	3	00	00	00	00		0																																				
181	4.02	0.99	2	06	18	16	14		0																																				
182	4.74	0.94	1	00	00	00	00</																																						

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	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	AA	AB	AC	AD	AE	AF	AG	AH	AI	AJ	AK	AL	AM	AN	AO				
1																																													
2				CSA																																									
3	No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist																																					
60	57	1.80	1.01	2	10	09	14	11			4			1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H				
61	58	2.02	0.98	2	11	13	07	12			0																																		
62	59	2.36	1.08	2	08	17	17	14			2			5	3	5	3	2	3	2	5	3	3	2	2	1	4	2	4	2	3	5	3	5	3	3	2	3	2	3	2				
63	60	1.08	0.99	2	08	13	17	15			3			3	2					4	2	5	3	3		4	3	4	3	3	5	3	4	2			4	3							
64	61	2.00	1.02	2	05	17	12	11			2			5	3					5	3			4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	3	2							5	3				
65	62	1.87	1.00	2	07	15	11	15			4			4	3	4	3							4	2	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	3	1			3	2	3	2				
66	63	1.70	1.05	2	16	10	10	13			0																																		
67	64	1.48	1.05	2	04	16	14	16			0																																		
68	65	1.42	1.05	2	05	15	16	11			0																																		
69	66	1.49	1.02	2	08	10	10	15			4			4		4		3	3					3		2		4		4		3		4		4									
70	67	1.88	1.06	2	08	16	17	19			0																																		
71	68	1.41	1.04	2	07	11	13	11			2			5	3													5	3	4	3														
72	69	1.41	1.02	2	06	17	14	13			3			3	2	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	3	2	1	2	1	4	3	5	3	5		4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2				
73	70	1.93	1.01	2	05	09	14	14			4			4	3	4	2			5	3					5	2	5	3	5	3	4	2												
74	71	2.44	1.03	2	05	14	12	14			0																																		
75	72	1.52	1.04	2	10	12	11	17			4			3	2	3	1			4	3			4	2	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	2	3	2	3	2				
76	73	1.86	1.00	2	00	00	00	00			5			3	2	3	2			3	2							3	2	4	3														
77	74	2.81	1.14	3	8	8	10	11			4			3	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	5	2	2	1	3	1	4	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	4	3	3	2				
78	75	1.85	1.35	3																																									
79	76	2.56	1.11	3	07	13	8	8			4			1	1	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	2	1	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	3	2				
80	77	2.75	1.14	3	13	11	10	11			2			4	2	4	3	1	1	3	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	5	3	4	3	4	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	3	2				
81	78	2.64	1.14	3	08	19	16	15			4			3	2	4	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	2	1	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	2	1				
82	79	2.83	1.12	3	09	16	16	16			3			4	2	5	3	3	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	3	2	3	2				
83	80	1.51	1.22	3	07	17	15	16			2			2	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	3	2	5	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	3	3				
84	81	1.59	1.24	3	08	10	16	15			3			1	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	4	2	4	3	3	2	3	2				
85	82	3.4	1.22	3	00	00	00	00			0																																		
86	83	1.55	1.23	3	09	13	13	08			0																																		
87	84	2.14	1.12	3	09	10	16	16			3			4	2	4	2	3	1	4	2	5	3	3	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2				
88	85	1.75	1.22	3	15	06	09	15			0																																		
89	86	1.65	1.14	3	00	00	00	00			2			4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2			2	1	2	1	4	2			5	3												
90	87	2.04	1.10	3	08	16	12	08			3			4	3	4	2			5	3			4	2			5	3	5	3	4	2			4	3			4	2				
91	88	2.52	1.17	3	08	15	14	11			0																																		
92	89	1.74	1.12	3	11	12	09	08			4			4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	3	2				
93	90	2.23	1.14	3	11	18	19	18			2			4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	4	3				
94	91	1.42	1.39	3	10	11	11	18			0																																		
95	92	1.59	1.21	3	08	17	16	18			2			5	3	3	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	2	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	3	4	2				
96	93	1.73	1.17	3	00	00	00	00			3			4	2	3	2			4	3			4	3	5	3		4	3															
97	94	1.82	1.22	3	09	15	11	16			3			4	2					4	3			4	2	3	2	3	2	4	3														
98	95	1.67	1.17	3	08	16	13	17			2			5	3	4	3		2	4	3		2		1	4	1	5	2	3	2			2	3	2			2			2			
99	96	1.63	1.16	3	14	06	09	14			4			5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	3				
100	97	1.62	1.19	3	11	08	10	17			4			2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	2	2	3	2		
101	98	1.46	1.20	3	06	13	14	12			0																																		
102	99	1.39	1.11	3	01	16	16	13			0																																		
103	100	1.43	1.15	3	00	20	18	19			0																																		
104	101	2.77	1.2	3	06	13	11	15			3			4	3	3				4	3			3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3														
105	102	2.61	1.16	3	02	19	17	17			0																																		
106	103	1.68	1.23	3	06	12	13	10			4			3	2	4	3	2	2	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	2	2	3	2				
107	104	1.65	1.22	3	02	16	15	15			4			3	2																														

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	AA	AB	AC	AD	AE	AF	AG	AH	AI	AJ	AK	AL	AM	AN	AO				
1																																													
2				CSA							PrvKn																																		
3	No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist					1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H					
117	114	3.07	1.24	3	10	17	15	15			3		4	3	4	2	4	2	4	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	4	3	2	1	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	
118	115	2.59	1.27	3	10	12	14	14			4		4	2	4	2	5	3	4	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	5	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	5	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	
119	116	1.29	0.95	4	05	19	12	12			4		2	1	5	3	4	2	5	3	4	2	2	1	3	2	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	3	4	2	2	2	2	2	
120	117	1.34	0.97	4	06	20	18	14			0																																		
121	118	1.20	0.81	4	05	09	10	09			0																																		
122	119	1.03	0.91	4	13	09	11	18			3		3	2	4	2	3	2	4	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	4	2	4	3	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	
123	120	1.21	0.83	4	12	08	09	12			1		5	3	5	3									4	2	0	0	4	2															
124	121	1.31	0.94	4	04	19	14	12			3		4	3	2	1	2	1	5	3	3	2	4	2	3	2	5	3	4	3	3	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	
125	122	1.18	0.9	4	00	00	00	00			0																																		
126	123	1.23	0.93	4	00	00	00	00			0																																		
127	124	1.05	0.88	4	00	00	00	00			2		4	3	4	2	4	2	4	3	3	1	3	2	4	2	4	3	5	3	4	2	4	3	4	2	3	4	2	3	2	3	2	2	
128	125	1.05	0.86	4	15	14	11	17			2		5	3	4	2			4	3							4	3	5	3	4	3													
129	126	1.34	0.90	4	07	14	18	16			3		5	3	5	3					4	2	4	2			5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3				4	2				
130	127	1.26	0.95	4	09	12	13	17			5		3	2	5	3	3	2	4	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	4	3	4	3	4	2	4	3	4	3	2	1	2	2	2				
131	128	1.35	1.08	5	00	00	00	00			0																																		
132	129	1.19	0.98	5	04	14	12	12			3		4	3	4	3			4	3			4	2	3	2	4	3	5	3	5	3													
133	130	1.12	1.06	5	07	14	13	12			3		3	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	4	3	3	2	4	3	4	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	3	3	2	3	2					
134	131	1.28	1.06	5	04	15	10	07			0																																		
135	132	1.09	1.00	5	12	15	12	14			0																																		
136	133	1.30	1.03	5	00	00	00	00			4		2	1	3	2	3	1	4	2			4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	3	2	4	2			
137	134	1.22	1.08	5	15	10	13	17			0																																		
138	135	1.05	1.04	5	00	00	00	00			0																																		
139	136	1.28	1.07	5	05	16	09	10			2		3	3					3	2	0	0					3	3	3	3															
140	137	1.09	1.09	5	09	13	14	15			1		4	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2				
141	138	1.35	1.07	5	05	15	19	14			5		5	3	4	2			5	3			4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	2											
142	139	1.26	1.01	5	07	19	13	19			3		4	2	4	2	3	1	3	1	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	
143	140	1.12	1.27	6	11	14	11	11																																					
144	141	1.30	1.41	6	05	18	11	11			4		3	2	4	3	4	2	4	2	4	3	2	2	3	3	3	2	4	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	2			
145	142	1.18	1.50	6	07	10	12	12			0																																		
146	143	1.14	1.1	6	11	12	12	12			5		4	2	4	2			5	3					5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3											
147	144	1.08	1.12	6	00	00	00	00			0																																		
148	145	1.05	1.31	6	03	15	12	09			3		4	3											3	2	0	0	5	3			5	3											
149	146	1.25	1.18	6	04	15	18	11			0																																		
150	147	1.16	1.14	6	14	10	05	15			3		4	3	4	2			5	3			4	3	4		5	3																	
151	148	1.03	1.16	6	00	00	00	00			0																																		
152	149	1.33	1.31	6	00	00	00	00			2		4	3	4	2	3	2	3	3	4	3	3	2	1	1	4	3	4	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	3	2	3	2			
153	150	1.27	1.18	6	00	00	00	00			0																																		
154	151	1.13	1.24	6	12	07	03	05			3		3	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2		
155	152	1.09	1.14	6	12	12	17	13			0																																		
156	153	1.33	1.28	6	10	16	12	11			0																																		
157	154	0.74	0.95	7	08	16	13	14			0																																		
158	155	1.00	0.97	7	13	17	15	17			0																																		
159	156	0.92	0.95	7	04	17	13	09			2		4	3					4	2			4	2	3	1	4	2	3	1	4	2													
160	157	0.69	0.88	7	00	00	00	00			3		4	2	4	2			5	3			4	2	4	2																			
161	158	0.94	0.97	7	11	17	11	11			3		4	2	5	2	3	2	3	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	4	2	5	3	5	3	5	3	4	2	5	3	5	3	4	2			
162	159	0.91	1.09	8	06	14	14	15			5		4	2	4	3			4	2			4	2	4	3	3	2	3	2															

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Preferences by CSA type

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	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	AA	AB	AC	AD	AE	AF	AG	AH	AI	AJ	AK	AL	AM	AN	AO								
1																																																	
2				CSA							PrvKn	Preference																																					
3	No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist					1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H									
288										6	3.65	2.33	3.67	2.50	3.80	2.20	3.33	2.00	3.80	2.60																													
289										7	3.88	2.17	4.00	2.33	4.50	2.00	3.00	2.00	4.00	2.33																													
290										8	4.10	2.29	3.75	2.25	4.00	2.25	4.00	2.00	4.67	2.67																													
291										9	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####																													
292																																																	
293																																																	
294											Lone																																						
295											CSA																																						
296											type	Prf	Hlp																																				
297											1	3.02	1.96										2.38	1.75	3.23	2.17												3.31	2.00	3.15	1.92								
298											2	3.27	2.03										3.00	1.82	3.37	2.22												3.29	2.00	3.44	2.06								
299											3	3.22	2.04										2.85	1.82	3.22	1.88												3.45	2.35	3.35	2.13								
300											4	3.13	1.96										2.83	1.67	3.17	2.00												3.33	2.17	3.17	2.00								
301											5	3.69	2.29										3.67	2.17	3.83	2.50												3.50	2.25	3.75	2.25								
302											6	3.29	2.18										3.00	2.25	3.17	2.20												3.50	2.25	3.50	2.00								
303											7	3.75	1.83										3.33	1.67	3.67	1.67												4.50	2.50	3.50	1.50								
304											8	3.56	2.02										3.25	1.75	3.25	2.00											4.00	2.33	3.75	2.00									
305											9	####	####										#DIV/0!	####	####	####												####	####	####	####								
306																																																	
307																																																	
308											Group																																						
309											CSA																																						
310											type	Prf	Hlp																																				
311											1	3.90	2.37	4.07	2.69								3.17	1.82				4.21	2.62	4.36	2.62	4.08	2.50	3.46	1.92	3.92	2.42												
312											2	3.97	2.40	3.78	2.36								3.88	2.25				4.13	2.52	4.29	2.70	4.10	2.47	3.78	2.35	3.85	2.15												
313											3	4.00	2.47	3.60	2.27								3.82	2.22				4.18	2.64	4.17	2.68	4.25	2.56	4.00	2.50	3.95	2.39												
314											4	4.02	2.44	3.88	2.50								3.67	2.00				3.75	2.38	4.38	2.75	4.00	2.29	4.33	2.67	4.17	2.50												
315											5	4.06	2.60	3.57	2.43								2.75	2.00				4.29	2.86	4.43	2.71	4.67	2.67	4.75	2.75	4.00	2.75												
316											6	4.02	2.70	3.67	2.50								3.67	2.67				3.33	2.17	4.40	3.00	4.50	2.75	4.60	2.80	4.00	3.00												
317											7	4.24	2.29	4.00	2.33								4.00	2.00				4.00	2.00	4.00	2.00	4.67	2.67	4.00	2.00	5.00	3.00												
318											8	4.01	2.42	3.75	2.25								3.50	2.00				4.25	2.75	4.25	2.75	4.33	2.67	4.00	2.50	4.00	2.00												
319											9	####	####	####	####								####	####				####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####		
320																																																	
321																																																	
322											Mono-sensory																																						
323											CSA																																						
324											type	Prf	Hlp																																				
325											1	3.24	2.06	4.07	2.69	3.62	2.08	2.92	1.91				2.38	1.75																	3.31	2.00	3.15	1.92					
326											2	3.39	2.06	3.78	2.36	3.53	2.11	3.30	2.00				3.00	1.82																3.29	2.00	3.44	2.06						
327											3	3.39	2.14	3.60	2.27	3.81	2.31	3.27	1.96				2.85	1.82																3.45	2.35	3.35	2.13						
328											4	3.44	2.08	3.88	2.50	4.25	2.38	3.20	1.80				2.83	1.67																3.33	2.17	3.17	2.00						
329											5	3.51	2.15	3.57	2.43	3.83	2.33	2.75	1.50				3.67	2.17																3.50	2.25	3.75	2.25						
330											6	3.47	2.20	3.67	2.50	3.80	2.20	3.33	2.00				3.00	2.25																3.50	2.25	3.50	2.00						
331											7	3.81	2.00	4.00	2.33	4.50	2.00	3.00	2.00				3.33	1.67																4.50	2.50	3.50	1.50						
332											8	3.79	2.10	3.75	2.25	4.00	2.25	4.00	2.00				3.25	1.75																4.00	2.33	3.75	2.00						
333											9	####	####	####	####	####	####	####	####				#DIV/0!	####																####	####	####	####						
334																																																	
335																																																	
336																																																	

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	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	AA	AB	AC	AD	AE	AF	AG	AH	AI	AJ	AK	AL	AM	AN	AO								
1																																																	
2				CSA							PrvKn		Preference																																				
3	No.	WA score	VI score	code	Activist	Reflector	Theorist	Pragmatist					1	1-H	2	2-H	3	3-H	4	4-H	5	5-H	6	6-H	7	7-H	8	8-H	9	9-H	10	10H	11	11H	12	12H	13	13H	14	14H									
459										3,6,9			SD	0.097		0.041		0.015		0.195		0.050		0.063	SD																								
460																																																	
461																																																	
462			Inter/Verb		Inter/Bim		Inter/Imag						Mean rating of each CSA type for each delivery mode																																				
463		Helpful/3	Pref/5	Helpful	Pref/5	Helpful/3	Pref/5	Helpful/3					CSA type	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	X	SD																									
464		2.1429	3.5198	2.1469	3.5952	2.2143	3.4708	2.2500					Qu	DM	1	4.07	3.78	3.60	3.88	3.57	3.67	4.00	3.75	*	3.79	0.18																							
465		2.2845	3.8262	2.2325	3.6582	2.2551	3.8000	2.4595					2		3.62	3.53	3.81	4.25	3.83	3.80	4.50	4.00	*	3.92	0.32																								
466		2.3509	3.6369	2.2253	3.8878	2.4626	3.7238	2.4333					3		2.92	3.30	3.27	3.20	2.75	3.33	3.00	4.00	*	3.22	0.38																								
467		2.2711	3.9650	2.3683	3.6024	2.2595	3.7200	2.4600					4		3.93	4.16	3.90	4.33	3.86	3.80	4.00	4.67	*	4.08	0.29																								
468		2.1533	3.5139	2.1458	3.7401	2.2976	3.4611	2.2500					5		3.17	3.88	3.82	3.67	2.75	3.67	4.00	3.50	*	3.56	0.41																								
469		2.3618	3.9521	2.3708	3.6845	2.3586	3.7500	2.5167					6		2.38	3.00	2.85	2.83	3.67	3.00	3.33	3.25	*	3.04	0.38																								
470		2.1429	3.5198	2.1469	3.5952	2.2143	3.4708	2.2500					7		3.23	3.37	3.22	3.17	3.83	3.17	3.67	3.25	*	3.36	0.25																								
471													8		4.21	4.13	4.18	3.75	4.29	3.33	4.00	4.25	*	4.02	0.33																								
472													9		4.36	4.29	4.17	4.38	4.43	4.40	4.00	4.25	*	4.28	0.14																								
473													10		4.08	4.10	4.25	4.00	4.67	4.50	4.67	4.33	*	4.32	0.26																								
474													11		3.46	3.78	4.00	4.33	4.75	4.60	4.00	4.00	*	4.12	0.43																								
475													12		3.92	3.85	3.95	4.17	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	*	4.11	0.37																								
476		Whol/Bim		Whol/Imag									13		3.31	3.29	3.45	3.33	3.50	3.50	4.50	4.00	*	3.61	0.43																								
477		Pref/5	Helpful/3	Pref/5	Helpful/3								14		3.15	3.44	3.35	3.17	3.75	3.50	3.50	3.75	*	3.45	0.23																								
478		3.8333	2.1563	No data	No data																																												
479		4.0357	2.2262	No data	No data																																												
480		3.9048	2.3571	No data	No data																																												
481		4.0833	2.2333	No data	No data																																												
482		3.8194	2.1667	No data	No data																																												
483		4.0521	2.3333	No data	No data																																												
484		3.8333	2.1563	No data	No data																																												

CSA Sample Total - WA data			Note:																																								
Reference No.	Sex	Age	Median W	Median A	Mean W	Mean A	SD W	SD A	wa1	wa2	wa3	wa4	wa5	wa6	wa7	wa8	wa9	wa10	wa11	wa12	wa13	wa14	wa15	wa16	wa17	wa18	wa19	wa20	wa21	wa22	wa23	wa24	wa25	wa26	wa27	wa28	wa29	wa30	wa31	wa32	wa33	wa34	
	100	M	39	510	301	644	494	499	557	2630	923	653	917	478	1048	351	615	401	517	335	608	345	510	510	374	428	433	521	280	1641	2509	378	253	341	685	198	247	198	439	504	280	417	351
	101	m	42	290	137	293	178	106	83	466	407	330	416	368	357	202	219	285	295	230	378	165	269	505	203	302	132	187	137	423	229	130	115	92	191	237	132	132	132	148	121	143	108
	106	M	38	470	255	483	251	243	87	505	308	269	473	565	1187	203	379	654	467	383	680	549	731	478	213	433	165	817	198	341	126	187	192	361	373	192	142	460	258	341	258	302	169
	108	M	50	220	145	282	180	162	91	582	587	411	526	280	566	346	236	204	180	158	198	132	164	242	153	330	104	137	103	433	235	148	121	109	307	246	109	253	158	142	103	103	154
	10	F	29	460	197	475	292	244	170	994	455	516	291	378	839	313	506	248	896	664	460	142	571	592	132	675	208	460	164	550	252	110	121	599	471	285	197	493	114	169	176	522	269
	112	M	40	403	189	452	325	291	309	939	522	417	671	307	1405	235	478	587	345	378	406	158	510	526	191	400	114	307	142	1454	746	171	423	258	566	208	137	461	142	198	158	121	312
	117	M	41	1107	233	1005	251	462	102	2285	1186	1333	510	1185	1516	1317	779	691	1207	1092	1121	1214	669	889	592	462	411	1367	269	500	291	246	252	273	433	187	153	423	169	138	352	219	253
	121	M	47	552	264	542	328	305	189	839	566	401	335	516	719	231	867	185	708	148	1280	631	669	186	538	731	191	944	148	894	477	257	286	176	670	258	264	544	153	280	158	494	203
	122	M	46	928	345	899	389	499	181	1191	823	506	605	675	1653	335	1020	357	973	1038	1912	202	1187	1169	295	1560	132	1466	883	839	262	263	225	605	642	455	225	385	307	253	428	203	213
	127	M	41	400	222	482	325	448	222	2285	379	401	835	400	616	242	291	307	517	204	532	203	433	444	208	554	137	528	137	884	649	219	439	225	433	159	160	462	119	187	181	169	241
	133	m	31	239	121	299	165	182	108	873	521	318	428	367	565	142	296	219	341	180	237	132	214	241	148	148	136	357	115	549	115	121	115	121	302	153	187	137	103	115	126	110	136
	137	m	35	475	269	460	307	199	103	1131	621	401	472	357	587	213	478	225	396	351	521	555	401	526	482	477	175	575	257	555	269	242	214	500	450	269	214	323	215	203	362	346	450
	138	m	39	500	246	549	359	212	379	818	955	598	1153	614	696	478	423	466	566	374	450	373	521	526	555	439	378	269	323	1923	504	373	252	285	564	220	291	489	158	158	191	202	207
	13	m	28	373	126	445	146	245	49	1355	571	439	631	383	390	329	346	280	330	351	609	219	296	361	362	427	471	625	130	247	115	158	186	120	120	98	203	87	148	114	132	94	208
	148	M	40	370	216	388	272	136	132	819	460	532	532	269	467	378	362	296	281	275	346	263	313	378	494	301	411	396	182	603	153	164	317	160	296	191	323	373	176	241	154	130	176
	151	M	41	233	153	275	203	125	125	720	362	324	312	196	252	202	230	284	208	180	235	225	203	467	268	285	159	230	153	401	153	153	317	148	614	121	153	149	346	137	114	247	153
	154	M	43	601	381	621	399	307	125	1630	719	647	610	703	1164	378	665	664	471	346	504	411	603	841	599	346	323	522	280	555	257	394	462	351	406	330	307	642	351	247	285	176	373
	16	f	29	305	161	352	224	196	133	351	467	258	296	275	614	235	412	302	923	158	352	164	307	610	158	476	116	466	99	351	246	132	241	169	313	203	137	119	198	323	143	142	509
	171	m	24	158	117	186	155	95	88	532	225	235	262	175	182	120	147	126	280	131	109	114	125	230	132	202	108	110	169	274	108	110	114	98	385	131	120	125	114	208	99	142	400
	175	m	36	733	362	1670	368	2462	160	9815	1257	5910	5673	779	2328	753	714	280	637	292	1417	170	395	933	329	493	137	978	110	383	423	180	132	401	669	394	182	687	231	341	198	329	296
	176	x	0	301	200	315	218	101	74	483	296	450	291	328	429	214	280	214	423	175	264	367	280	308	533	307	225	307	136	451	248	138	164	125	268	169	154	257	235	291	191	137	219
	178	m	40	609	316	764	542	438	484	1971	1301	1164	1148	549	1312	1075	730	944	341	444	788	285	669	537	411	454	312	416	341	2009	658	253	340	291	1685	319	312	866	214	280	187	582	269
	180	M	46	491	222	630	232	653	77	3218	632	471	647	632	1467	473	614	378	401	208	516	169	537	467	510	307	191	616	142	423	203	187	213	142	400	247	153	296	164	165	236	164	242
	21	m	39	227	145	254	203	148	141	703	275	132	301	241	351	108	521	176	213	175	341	130	368	291	165	164	87	258	88	516	647	120	148	152	257	142	98	116	126	115	98	186	191
	22	M	36	305	192	331	236	173	127	505	839	246	351	400	598	186	275	192	296	198	543	186	341	351	192	314	121	351	137	648	351	142	186	164	275	220	198	428	176	181	132	203	242
	25	M	48	247	131	364	159	386	81	1789	242	192	1087	268	312	187	235	180	252	137	537	137	341	192	148	307	302	325	114	335	175	202	142	105	423	198	110	169	110	103	169	126	103
	29	M	43	488	250	599	295	433	134	652	494	307	367	482	883	158	587	208	669	291	1158	137	1049	1307	241	1125	147	1592	116	307	532	269	301	213	653	218	367	434	456	225	175	116	202
	2	x	44	225	167	264	184	140	93	653	121	318																															

38 M	45	335	197	678	259	1276	156	702	428	357	1081	301	604	231	314	297	455	225	460	208	269	478	219	236	6167	405	125	730	203	532	98	383	405	164	114	346	158	153	164	147	203
39 M	39	1032	408	1126	603	798	589	950	829	510	1132	1340	3619	1114	1747	560	1582	407	1817	357	2251	1247	319	873	422	1301	137	637	383	142	553	253	550	285	2516	2005	246	329	372	367	438
43 M	39	143	96	154	100	50	20	230	153	114	225	187	225	92	137	264	153	279	169	149	105	114	114	132	87	137	119	158	110	103	110	110	148	98	92	94	76	72	92	81	103
51 m	47	560	277	704	363	419	185	819	1312	423	544	1635	1680	466	1053	296	907	412	867	301	780	576	303	593	242	483	390	691	246	253	226	235	846	526	275	407	219	280	357	198	714
57 m	46	381	260	471	604	368	955	933	362	237	258	703	889	1712	489	246	345	230	692	142	405	500	148	450	137	401	137	774	785	346	1060	791	516	318	275	4597	142	169	132	198	164
62 m	40	1208	728	2183	1046	3336	1186	16005	895	751	3131	714	3169	3208	3421	625	1582	357	1214	5	0	878	2004	1202	1267	2170	1071	1685	1890	5931	801	636	553	775	405	383	835	478	812	383	681
6 m	44	873	502	831	561	323	236	1510	862	873	878	1141	394	874	544	746	1137	987	572	1076	1291	389	1098	295	719	362	648	521	488	385	362	648	521	412	1005	412	405	483	296	653	
79 m	47	416	256	645	261	649	81	2823	1401	230	544	483	1901	505	312	285	956	274	462	439	394	428	301	394	198	405	164	478	417	258	275	175	285	263	253	246	230	230	175	273	286
81 m	45	228	132	282	140	157	44	867	412	433	214	330	323	208	274	176	389	137	237	193	242	247	186	208	165	187	219	268	114	149	137	108	203	219	92	160	82	108	99	120	137
86 m	43	335	177	334	185	222	70	428	324	105	346	187	648	141	521	110	378	137	538	92	477	609	207	367	87	889	86	197	302	214	142	142	307	169	92	185	110	119	87	347	208
102 m	44	423	236	412	274	214	147	801	703	215	483	625	642	203	412	170	537	143	725	307	433	488	203	390	120	528	108	653	253	262	175	132	488	160	154	406	110	219	147	339	323
103 m	38	571	359	666	420	348	213	1532	571	708	764	411	866	319	796	312	323	1153	707	571	554	1421	510	473	367	725	236	407	483	225	246	357	506	268	262	676	247	775	158	560	450
109 m	29	282	115	309	154	184	104	648	714	246	319	242	687	241	340	176	351	116	401	142	346	317	114	170	126	396	82	455	109	97	94	185	444	115	114	87	125	92	76	175	125
110 m	48	252	176	285	219	119	100	330	334	575	592	269	258	330	351	246	218	158	385	192	208	247	225	136	285	175	191	214	197	153	160	148	379	148	126	395	116	158	132	275	192
111 M	47	329	238	377	245	235	99	1076	516	148	329	411	757	242	314	175	488	153	330	137	330	317	505	378	148	652	132	389	275	198	153	246	230	208	318	439	132	170	169	103	264
119 m	46	518	318	544	351	273	203	1297	884	564	658	553	907	307	751	280	598	192	642	186	450	467	471	373	482	680	137	1087	428	132	225	220	432	187	253	510	396	203	251	296	148
11 f	42	302	189	342	231	155	97	450	483	301	357	241	658	203	478	176	225	258	335	142	687	467	280	302	153	450	187	455	351	136	164	126	351	158	214	367	158	252	158	285	187
123 m	41	373	200	421	242	223	102	1279	625	433	395	367	614	291	307	462	240	180	367	279	378	417	319	417	225	405	323	357	153	175	203	280	252	182	253	533	148	198	165	307	438
12 m	46	357	216	481	322	303	257	1087	423	379	735	318	725	334	884	324	396	148	1285	171	280	268	603	407	330	328	186	1153	214	191	208	247	863	280	181	428	165	126	210	219	368
139 m	46	612	236	876	347	1126	277	5498	830	769	317	691	1004	169	1906	521	571	560	961	231	653	653	555	461	253	796	126	516	251	253	158	180	862	362	176	1043	378	169	231	241	170
142 M	27	214	129	214	172	85	117	407	275	148	291	241	214	92	121	246	215	159	169	121	335	247	235	180	98	351	136	303	116	120	132	98	324	115	148	137	142	98	142	110	214
143 m	37	187	131	221	152	114	61	504	341	407	395	142	148	99	176	137	198	121	280	104	258	160	219	219	98	301	109	268	196	203	159	132	246	279	126	103	92	77	120	110	131
145 M	39	351	241	432	285	223	148	784	362	341	654	230	1033	319	296	317	708	324	329	373	621	467	219	367	164	592	142	439	159	132	181	423	577	269	158	372	230	109	142	251	279
149 M	38	574	227	501	321	302	202	1246	883	214	412	648	789	198	702	225	576	143	658	218	571	680	208	719	130	675	121	862	500	219	225	230	301	295	185	225	187	165	192	258	164
153 m	28	384	251	356	331	166	283	417	279	417	687	400	471	230	423	148	291	142	653	132	575	384	383	285	198	494	103	345	296	125	389	317	1478	198	187	455	160	153	185	219	208
158 m	39	362	241	453	262	295	146	839	340	641	566	241	603	176	357	241	725	132	1087	186	676	1049	153	367	137	373	175	801	132	158	235	142	341	247	137	390	115	181	208	263	297
159 m	27	304	211	351	265	161	151	592	614	396	676	428	543	204	455	192	246	291	158	208	317	346	258	253	208	505	126	768	187	180	208	176	417	235	175	319	114	165	136	121	301
161 m	43	420	140	411	180	198	97	807	483	323	231	614	482	202	423	296	566	301	797	219	451	675	164	450	131	417	187	444	142	109	137	121	362	126	165	141	115	114	153	378	280
166 M	42	475	283	576	332	542	151	2833	830	412	324	450	614	473	632	318	637	307	658	362	494	532	219	477	246	505	192	500	285	170	153	286	301	478	268	511	312	257	218	280	483
170 m	51	818	450	871	506	401	183	587	637	746	1235	983	2125	780	731	1010	857	516	1230	318	894	1169	555	1114	603	1082	253	301	352	423	532	334	466	691	378	896	323	378	698	460	291
173 m	43	365	200	420	238	217	128	905	675	500	423	346	594	928	307	258	389	226	609	193	330	455	264	385	192	262	158	703	274	181	132	132	280	153	198	412	142	248	176	147	275
177 m	35	398	185	631	240	649	151	3087	1131	1037	1114	681	1082	308	407	208	478	253	471	186	312	548	186	390	307	312	119	460	263	115	148	165	247	126	230	185	185	220	120	769	417
184 M	48	469	312	555	410	327	261	1500	757	1246	830	489	587	390	549	275	423	652	367	187	438	450	401	621	142	603	198	592	1054	258	489	274	808	330	203	319	318	307	808	262	197
19 M	48	469	169	507	201	288	102	1241	367	506	747	357	619	291	489	357	1181	253	450	171	610	692	357	543	126	572	202	510	181	198	137	219	291	158	185	433	154	142	126	154	180
1 M	37	309	140	296	175	123	72	373	440	225	356	291	460	175	291	185	351	197	544	142	328	405	154	401	121	378	109	257	114	103	104	291	318	120	121	308	131	121	110	236	219
28 M	46	614	200	643	366	394	317	1218	757	170	456	444	1559	207	1026	264	670	576	944	275	653	1307	516	669	198	796	153	1289	153	181	335	163	1175	357	164	187	196	586	180	275	505
31 m	45																																								

	8 M	43	128	115	132	140	34	48	235	154	114	169	125	153	88	153	130	132	158	114	125	98	136	121	153	121	77	88	235	88	192	103	110	214	99	192	121	103	110	105	93	182	
	96 m	21	148	126	264	158	222	86	1010	582	351	253	439	339	110	142	114	148	110	489	110	296	148	214	121	92	126	87	235	335	126	132	92	346	126	126	116	99	83	82	94	350	
	99 m	42	280	222	327	232	162	75	883	478	478	297	169	383	219	225	301	208	473	317	460	180	235	208	264	264	303	198	330	225	214	176	242	335	148	230	423	169	148	181	219	225	
	118 m	49	428	340	518	402	257	177	982	862	653	1054	357	983	379	450	269	346	307	428	482	428	730	473	341	170	319	351	819	246	219	308	296	427	280	258	883	334	291	346	444	312	
	125 M	22	136	120	201	146	153	80	713	351	121	396	137	444	98	136	175	214	103	142	126	125	114	114	110	142	164	99	462	92	153	108	120	180	99	121	119	169	92	219	125	187	
	135 f	23	164	124	202	138	125	53	658	273	164	165	285	253	99	241	109	341	120	130	148	165	176	142	115	110	247	92	165	127	98	99	114	317	105	158	147	98	147	121	142	154	
	144 m	48	716	637	834	683	485	352	960	614	351	466	1516	955	411	1301	444	2137	572	1493	428	817	1175	544	972	417	967	148	1087	785	526	725	407	1395	599	707	900	450	544	851	1635	394	
	174 m	38	171	168	231	208	150	115	599	335	164	225	175	175	136	576	116	407	171	171	125	110	241	126	148	121	422	76	537	171	121	92	165	235	203	473	264	158	164	109	114	257	
	179 m	41	170	148	220	174	152	89	741	423	198	208	203	483	137	196	176	165	164	136	153	115	219	137	120	103	214	105	186	148	138	108	98	308	116	142	137	104	181	176	148	187	
	185 m	43	269	246	299	240	133	67	599	510	363	275	308	614	142	263	208	329	236	307	141	246	280	362	230	219	219	132	433	187	148	246	285	296	219	268	323	141	153	280	257	208	
	188 M	45	186	164	225	164	135	54	746	241	171	208	137	405	175	191	203	142	165	153	302	132	203	182	121	208	253	154	170	116	132	121	105	275	126	120	307	104	241	115	164	198	
	33 M	41	385	297	357	343	157	136	621	401	154	208	428	599	208	385	169	291	176	571	197	516	406	455	385	219	576	187	346	290	214	187	308	593	273	362	632	269	280	230	187	341	
	35 M	43	154	134	172	150	77	71	346	158	186	357	98	94	82	76	203	142	142	251	121	203	253	197	121	149	158	110	351	98	99	121	76	148	98	98	219	71	99	76	208	153	
	40 f	48	195	200	220	248	75	136	319	390	246	307	98	198	192	225	170	186	164	142	313	230	202	158	142	142	137	170	362	291	664	182	197	417	351	182	203	460	132	137	114	132	180
	44 m	19	137	109	162	123	65	52	341	208	182	269	137	235	110	137	153	110	115	126	132	114	98	214	87	154	230	92	213	137	121	103	103	296	110	109	153	114	104	83	103	82	
	4 m	44	222	170	325	202	253	108	1126	328	544	214	653	680	203	455	230	367	164	248	149	137	379	153	116	132	88	132	544	285	143	137	103	383	143	119	323	104	132	158	214	182	
	58 m	43	354	294	407	339	197	165	324	401	158	384	297	455	385	494	214	702	180	933	280	538	697	280	292	230	621	286	324	933	153	225	308	280	401	291	264	285	296	460	196	455	
	59 m	34	203	159	317	210	271	174	1044	653	795	489	203	758	158	225	148	120	148	367	236	203	203	126	109	132	114	104	873	220	126	98	116	471	98	132	180	114	165	180	251	121	
	65 m	29	216	216	273	258	215	156	1010	768	236	302	246	279	153	191	279	279	218	142	192	132	214	235	132	175	137	142	714	175	335	247	235	225	214	186	603	121	121	76	218	264	
	74 M	45	538	513	1347	648	2028	524	2225	879	774	8585	769	401	604	329	317	528	549	423	324	330	455	357	412	862	5398	2428	2751	960	753	537	384	791	367	692	730	411	867	269	571	411	
	75 M	44	359	293	406	353	299	230	1553	544	456	466	317	384	169	296	202	269	164	401	604	335	407	164	395	214	625	148	955	966	351	526	301	559	296	396	367	226	171	130	187	291	
	80 m	44	351	280	419	344	193	218	901	411	385	499	407	900	225	346	328	467	357	641	192	345	550	341	280	269	329	219	587	385	169	301	275	599	214	196	488	169	301	180	241	241	
	104 m	38	117	104	152	121	108	51	592	203	103	219	105	192	82	125	120	192	98	132	103	121	109	103	99	114	148	76	235	82	87	87	116	280	99	104	110	110	126	87	94	185	
	140 m	46	164	164	181	175	66	51	317	208	163	341	214	198	138	225	130	164	142	291	115	121	137	137	164	103	187	121	279	132	120	164	185	219	318	154	208	164	126	169	164	203	
	155 m	42	288	243	350	380	226	317	1082	363	445	285	291	746	269	451	208	550	169	242	137	346	351	159	417	148	230	121	504	784	1290	753	251	982	192	235	263	187	149	137	165	428	
	162 f	19	173	154	209	204	152	113	778	153	313	186	214	262	94	182	137	401	246	181	110	82	98	104	103	159	165	203	472	214	154	137	153	504	235	142	345	87	136	109	105	258	
	27 m	39	426	263	515	291	434	131	2180	549	588	598	275	691	164	285	943	219	346	531	159	429	642	142	592	312	1623	230	742	291	262	253	417	297	219	390	264	280	198	412	159	235	
	64 m	48	104	90	141	108	79	38	407	181	121	280	94	181	98	83	132	82	120	99	104	82	103	225	93	87	158	98	230	82	71	87	169	83	99	92	105	87	125	82	81	148	
	70 M	46	398	343	465	451	272	261	1444	279	609	296	219	493	378	163	351	417	374	571	698	500	429	653	324	251	632	219	1328	230	285	324	175	526	807	466	471	275	285	291	473	341	
	71 M	44	313	291	381	368	260	207	1289	692	526	603	489	506	258	214	362	246	170	351	367	164	202	235	274	142	390	143	873	862	226	247	241	203	268	367	280	478	308	169	550	219	
	73 m	42	181	173	192	182	79	54	407	214	323	203	121	192	121	103	153	114	181	291	148	180	246	198	270	109	104	165	230	208	160	202	158	220	169	132	198	176	87	357	141	241	
	84 m	22	219	167	334	193	265	80	708	422	198	312	203	460	153	933	125	621	142	988	125	142	235	257	208	105	230	116	328	275	208	169	125	385	132	132	230	176	132	153	181	136	
	95 m	44	629	494	1068	647	1187	380	5650	2427	1834	1846	742	571	715	676	511	526	1213	691	561	362	455	317	405	500	582	773	791	1130	439	351	905	1148	1784	609	374	252	423	341	312	499	
	9 M	34	159	121	247	125	382	32	175	1894	121	263	197	55	159	219	252	160	198	203	125	103	247	148	82	114	104	115	258	121	121	121	121	137	110	110	110	132	132	114	99	109	98
	147 m	36	132	142	160	176	85	82	489	203	142	235	110	131	116	132	114	158	158	132	121	87	149	132	230	103	87	164	433	237	126	137	121	268	98	121	132	158	274	132	170	153	
	172 m	29	115	156	130	206	52	103	154	328	120	137	99	164	103	110	130	121	87	187	82	147	94	116	114	92	103	105	275	235	121	264	98	125	351	148	350	126	104	119			

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86	m	43	392	394	367	390	483	406	392	405	532	367	225	416	291	669	346	642	235	494	1923	472	341	1125	500	713	394	258	301	901		780	219	313	280	394	483	423	416	352	230	731	537	280	472	341	323
102	m	44	387	397	425	411	403	381	274	370	407	219	246	357	176	301	423	384	204	517	25418	378	383	483	608	450	675	341	400	313		565	235	390	483	279	653	383	356	544	284	658	301	251	642	427	334
103	m	38	592	419	615	356	592	502	607	439	725	450	489	1121	725	363	1428	587	598	429	5458	478	785	619	476	291	637	637	313	680		691	319	471	610	302	1099	1482	330	478	400	576	564	328	483	522	340
109	m	29	615	409	664	375	664	491	447	483	614	428	466	702	182	373	411	807	615	823	664	664	714	1976	1005	378	473	642	598	685		598	422	702	873	291	956	251	636	439	526	604	669	296	692	378	257
110	m	48	264	221	285	200	282	266	227	222	204	214	296	263	230	225	339	285	203	191	383	279	192	280	291	231	335	317	264	253		312	312	357	148	180	235	218	208	251	225	319	164	269	367	192	263
111	M	47	453	335	428	316	634	397	419	337	505	275	334	505	1038	301	412	632	335	636	4547	654	372	367	428	428	467	367	489	526		439	253	516	421	257	587	220	417	207	473	576	367	427	505	346	334
119	m	46	400	409	525	431	549	441	359	362	576	317	301	1339	317	400	483	615	192	373	4575	652	731	735	539	522	400	236	208	181		1202	187	642	528	264	883	335	269	389	603	538	955	395	378	438	444
11	f	42	330	480	420	439	312	505	266	529	340	219	241	291	235	330	262	334	444	202	752	516	241	455	548	335	385				362	142	472	593	675	626	483	516	389	542	439	532	477	438	555	632	
123	m	41	433	297	447	283	357	299	403	376	466	257	625	439	367	307	281	433	433	220	4746	214	357	455	1042	423	571	407	1053	410		439	582	516	181	379	433	373	632	196	235	510	339	241	258	394	208
12	m	46	483	381	569	319	477	442	488	395	412	576	565	378	312	1680	285	796	341	367	20750	597	1698	812	483	339	450	751	654	1680		785	351	323	456	571	427	236	444	329	362	757	395	390	489	664	268
139	m	46	478	493	442	504	966	516	549	579	1164	478	357	730	619	478	427	1785	532	339	1725	1400	439	445	252	1185	367	813	346	158		681	264	510	741	423	735	396	983	330	905	383	543	489	439	730	566
142	M	27	325	363	338	351	368	335	203	338	390	208	148	273	198	153	385	389	297	351	433	191	325	180	352	389	621	669	164	800		301	119	460	153	158	955	455	219	429	247	368	401	192	412	301	275
143	m	37	262	268	285	228	414	282	216	315	219	158	383	235	214	176	251	506	158	422	407	533	279	455	367	341	412	307	273	164		241	191	291	230	187	312	307	378	318	339	324	208	203	317	312	251
145	M	39	328	396	326	398	708	450	299	356	592	286	500	291	307	236	714	471	246	923	703	1082	328	1203	312	555	417	251	339	159		308	175	471	325	269	394	252	642	444	318	510	362	637	460	440	264
149	M	38	357	332	373	327	395	321	354	408	758	301	373	367	257	341	246	291	758	389	1335	400	603	630	405	439	341	537	275	285		2251	218	296	330	258	669	291	630	439	378	702	367	362	258	280	246
153	m	28	263	206	274	236	260	202	260	233	461	142	231	308	285	235	257	263	180	285	944	203	735	274	275	219	313	170	198	268		390	149	291	357	202	362	187	280	262	204	317	334	196	208	182	196
158	m	39	558	374	522	362	615	519	444	345	439	450	664	357	719	297	669	412	462	615	725	615	626	575	428	598	427	367	582	526		960	517	357	303	329	307	242	812	362	456	582	603	516	462	522	351
159	m	27	839	862	744	788	2345	1056	883	961	472	839	927	1758	1483	736	819	3675	444	5432	1016	5837	747	867	741	483	554	1658	412	846		1566	669	835	291	582	1230	587	2428	2082	692	5826	676	478	1119	993	5782
161	m	43	186	203	247	134	282	260	231	296	176	120	160	265	317	2461	186	511	126	169	576	378	308	175	291	423	237	180	323	257		450	119	175	176	989	478	187	301	291	225	323	241	279	373	91	203
166	M	42	466	390	626	384	340	398	330	395	268	285	319	341	741	939	242	307	317	466	1247	362	598	2235	626	356	1944	356	862	1450		664	559	626	411	357	428	421	505	362	873	466	383	671	412	285	367
170	m	51	607	433	571	538	923	437	430	346	621	642	367	400	307	461	718	621	962	885	5310	1235	532	967	687	378	1362	390	312	378		1055	823	594	548	313	396	346	438	346	225	451	385	456	423	543	324
173	m	43	489	346	526	365	552	354	475	315	462	575	307	620	489	325	235	604	192	719	1180	500	400	714	652	372	767	812	758	378		741	328	297	351	251	566	423	328	302	198	396	556	264	312	362	346
177	m	35	401	373	395	332	464	486	286	348	438	516	264	275	208	297	428	500	362	401	795	533	795	417	264	636	412	317	450	275		1230	291	264	378	351	345	301	873	680	285	505	543	768	466	237	394
184	M	48	456	417	464	351	554	494	370	537	478	1114	248	373	251	367	823	450	297	658	3080	428	285	395	462	982	412	467	351	977		676	994	395	587	642	912	587	487	405	241	795	308	489	400	500	603
19	M	48	407	247	332	203	318	342	252	263	312	176	275	258	165	246	307	269	323	312	719	473	302	400	549	357	505	632	307	186		390	164	291	257	269	608	225	257	280	235	505	241	521	323	361	252
1	M	37	230	264	275	250	233	260	225	312	208	169	230	237	219	312	320	253	176	225	341	241	275	417	396	301	412	275	300	187		214	158	186	219	323	301	284	330	357	270	275	214	367	253	253	268
31	m	45	312	296	296	307	400	263	316	264	687	242	131	235	451	389	362	187	169	439	5778	482	462	1274	471	204	312	268	198	367		3669	158	181	280	264	873	214	264	421	225	346	396	225	301	192	180
34	M	38	923	483	893	455	669	614	1238	521	1016	1235	1939	1241	553	1824	807	1466	603	346	735	516	863	1911	3108	385	1295	4376	944	923		456	571	582	488	373	559	319	482	944	637	570	658	2014	846	489	307
3	x	41	351	372	392	416	526	370	321	271	444	185	328	351	158		324	583	285	530	5294	516	312	264	422	703	669	455	258	450		725	197	176	362	225	559	198	318	605	225	1016	362	372	538	367	251
41	m	50	756	620	1301	650	631	502	708	919	764	714	703	652	3371	609	389	1000	373	879	730	532	1432	2191	1378	987	1225	555	2005	1389		1098	1537	290	769	1158	939	900	568	1302	478	867	637	367	1291	313	362
54	M	42	662	516	477	530	791	489	665	593	817	698	394	632	1148	603	346	1362	368	692	5773	899	2180	1383	400	505	698	312	367	433		1455	450	268	1328	1158	692	323	363	637	548	510	550	471	505	450	473
60	m	46	305	304	409	266	272	368	279	332	263	187	296	428	555	258	231	253	148	314	1544	291	627	642	203	379	478	214	741	235		478	241	439	351	444	867	208	498	219	213	488	208	401	335	308	510
63	m	48	387	378	367	229	565	359	414	395	428																																				

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CSA Data for DCC Students

